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By-Roy, Robert R.

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An analysis of French oral proficiency and guidelines for evaluating and testing the development of such proficiency in learning French as a second language are the keynotes of this dissertation. The speech patterns (structural complexity, rate of production, and hesitation) of three groups of French students with various levels of audiolingual proficiency were compared. This sampling included native English speakers with one university course, native English speakers with two courses, and native French speakers with at least two courses. Oral and visual stimuli consisting of two 1-minute monologs and two black-and-white pictures were presented to the subjects. Conclusions drawn suggest that visual stimuli are more productive than oral stimuli, that evaluation depends on language elements and choice of stimuli, and that testing procedure should be more analytic. The report contains a bibliography and over 100 pages of appendixes which include examples of testing instruments, illustrations on visual stimuli, 21 data tables, and a graph on proposed testing techniques. (DS)

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

ORAL FRENCH PROFICIENCY
IDENTIFICATION AND
EVALUATION

by

ROBERT R. ROY

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Oral French Proficiency Identification and Evaluation" submitted by Robert R. Roy in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Supervisor

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. . . .

. . . .
External Examiner

Date . . . .

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to analyze the nature of oral French proficiency. From the information obtained about the nature of oral proficiency, some guidelines were set forth for evaluating oral proficiency development in learners of French as a second language.

This study has compared the speech of three groups of ten university students who were assumed to differ in oral French proficiency. The group assumed to be the least proficient was composed of native speakers of English who had completed only one university French course. The second most proficient group was composed of native speakers of English who had completed at least two university French courses. The most proficient group consisted of native speakers of French who had completed at least two university French courses.

In order to elicit four one-minute samples the subjects were exposed to four especially prepared stimuli. Two of these were one-minute monologues and two were series of black and white pictures. One of the oral stimuli contained few structures of modification and the other contained many; they differed in complexity. An attempt was made to develop in the two visual stimuli a difference that would elicit responses differing in complexity.

It was hypothesized that the three groups would produce language which did not differ in (a) structural complexity (b) rate of vocoid output, (c) rate of predicate output, and (d) frequency of hesitation. Complexity and hesitation were compared on the basis of an index which related a count of the occurrences with the output in a given production.

It was also hypothesized that the four different stimuli would have no relation to complexity, output, and hesitation.

Two-way analysis of variance with repeated measurements on one factor was used for data analysis. The repetitions were furnished by the monologues produced in response to four different stimuli. Whenever the groups were found to differ in a given monologue, Newman-Keuls test was used for further data analysis.

With an analysis of variance, a comparison was made of the frequency of errors made by the two non-native groups in the following areas:

1. Word-order conflict.
2. Prepositions and conjunctions.
3. Noun determiners.
4. Pronouns.

The relative frequency of occurrences in the four areas just named was also compared in the speech of natives.

From English-French contrastive analysis twenty pronunciation problems were selected. One monologue was analyzed to determine if the three groups used all of these twenty elements or if one group used more of them than the other groups did. This investigation was aimed at determining whether less proficient speakers have a greater tendency to avoid some pronunciation elements and whether a monologue could be expected to provide an examiner with examples of production of the pronunciation elements that he wants to evaluate.

The relative frequency of these pronunciation elements was also compared as a guide to their relative importance.

It was found that complexity, output, and hesitation vary with

proficiency but that only output and hesitation vary with the stimuli. Visual stimuli were more fertile than oral stimuli.

The two non-native groups were not found to be different on the variables measured.

On the basis of frequency, four arbitrarily selected grammatical classes and twenty pronunciation elements were found not to be equally important for communication. But individual pronunciation elements were as important for the beginners as for the native speakers.

The most important conclusions for oral proficiency evaluation concern the choice of stimuli, the weighting of various language elements, and suggestions of evolving to tests that are more analytic.

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CHAPTER I

"Language most showeth a man;
speak that I may see thee."
Ben Jonson

THE PROBLEM

I. GENERAL OBJECTIVES

The main object of this study is to analyze the nature of oral French proficiency. Secondarily, from the information obtained about the nature of oral proficiency, it attempts to set forth guidelines for evaluating oral proficiency development in learners of French as a second language.

To determine the nature of oral French proficiency, the study compares in three dimensions one-minute monologues spoken by groups known to differ in proficiency. The dimensions chosen are structural complexity, rate of output, and frequency of hesitation.

The study tests the constancy of complexity, rate of output, and frequency of hesitation by comparing speech produced in response to four different types of stimuli.

The investigation also considers three aspects of the evaluation of pronunciation. The purposes of the investigation of pronunciation were as follows:

1. to determine whether a one-minute monologue provides a wide enough sampling of pronunciation problems for evaluation.
2. to find out whether the scope of the language of the less proficient

speakers tends to be restricted to a narrower range of pronunciation problems.

3. to assess whether, on the basis of frequency, the mastery of all pronunciation problems is equally important.

The final object of this study is to find out, on the basis of frequency of occurrence, the relative importance of some groups of syntactical and morphological rules.

In summary then, the object of this study is to shed some light on the place of structural complexity, output, hesitation, pronunciation and syntactical and morphological rules in the development of oral French proficiency.

II. BACKGROUND

The need for studying the nature of oral French proficiency is great. If the development of oral proficiency is to be an important aspect of language teaching, it must also be an important aspect of language testing. But the testing of the development of oral proficiency depends upon the adequacy of the information available about the nature of what is to be tested. The evaluation of oral proficiency requires information about the nature of its various components and about the relative importance of these components.

Information about the nature of oral French proficiency alone is not adequate, however, to ensure its proper evaluation. The tester must select suitable techniques for eliciting speech. He must be aware of the influence that his choice of stimuli may have on the nature of the speech produced. Finally he must know how to rate objectively the speech samples which he elicits.

The survey of literature which follows, first documents the widespread belief in the importance of evaluating oral proficiency. Then it indicates how incomplete and unclear the notion of oral proficiency is. Third, it points out the great diversity of opinion about the nature of oral proficiency and about the possibility of its evaluation reflected in the rating scales used. Fourth, it provides a list of factors of proficiency for consideration. Fifth, it shows the two points of view held about the value of frequency counts to determine the relative importance of various classes of language elements. Sixth, it cites investigations which indicate that the nature of speech was influenced by the nature of the stimuli.

The Importance of Evaluating the Development of Oral French Proficiency

The fact that not too much is known about the nature of oral proficiency and about the construction of tests for its evaluation does not decrease in any way the need to pay attention to the oral skill in the evaluation of language growth. The demands to hear and speak a living language are much more frequent than the demands to read and write it.

The importance of evaluating the development of the speaking skill is paramount, for, as Pimsleur says:

> The difference between merely paying lip service to the oral objective and actually achieving it resides in making clear to the students that their grades will depend to a considerable extent upon their speaking performance.[1]

---

[1] Paul Pimsleur, Psychological Experiments Related to Second Language Learning: Report of the NDEA Conference (Los Angeles: University of California, 1959), p. 194.

This position is supported by the Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee:

> Public examinations exert a powerful influence on the framing of curricula and methods of teaching. It is therefore of the utmost importance that this influence should be for the better and not, as is often the case, for the worse.[2]

On the same subject Michael West adds:

> Perhaps the chief importance of examinations in language-work is not their effect in testing the pupils' learning, but their effect upon the teachers' teaching. . . . Language is a skill; its examination should be a test of ability to use the language, but the tendency is always to make the examination a Knowledge examination. . . . The Knowledge examination is easy to set, easy to apply, and easy to correct, whereas tests involve a more elaborate technique in setting, and in applying, and they are more expensive.[3]

The consensus of an NDEA conference in 1959 on language teaching was similar:

> There is a pressing need to evaluate trainees in realistic terms, with a justified weighting of their abilities, relating their abilities to accuracy of communication and effect on the native listener.[4]

But the need for a more scientific basis of evaluation still remains. Lado states that unless research in this area is intense, ". . . the ability to speak a foreign language, though it is the most highly prized of the integrated skills, will go largely untested."[5]

---

[2] Commomwealth Education Liaison Committee, "Tests and Examinations in English," Teaching English as a Second Language, H. B. Allan, editor (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 393.

[3] Michael West, "Examinations in a Foreign Language," English Language Teaching, 6(1946), p. 61.

[4] Pimsleur, op. cit., p. 28.

[5] Robert Lado, Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests (London: Longmans, 1961), p. 247.

Examples in abundance support Lado's fear that the evaluation of the speaking skill will continue to be neglected. West explains the lack of concern over the assessment of oral proficiency this way:

> The real reason is that (in many, if not most countries) a considerable proportion of the teachers do not want a test of ability to use the language because they cannot really use it themselves.[6]

One need not entirely agree with West but there are three ways in which the disregard for oral proficiency in evaluation has manifested itself. First, there are those who ignore the area completely. The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL; February, 1964 revision) is a pencil and paper test aimed at evaluating only (a) listening comprehension, (b) grammar, (c) vocabulary, (d) reading comprehension, and (e) style.[7] Les tests du b.e.l.c. completed in 1966 to evaluate the linguistic background of immigrants arriving in France do not have an oral production section. The authors reason that exclusion of an oral section makes the test more objective and economical of time.[8] There is still not one Canadian university that makes oral production a mandatory part of its language admission requirements even though already in its 1929-30 calendar the Ontario College of Education stated that "no candidate will be recommended for a certificate who is not awarded 50% of the marks assigned to laboratory practice in Science or to the oral practice in the languages."[9] In 1964 Sniderman could do no more than urge his readers to oral testing.[10]

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[6] West, op. cit., p. 61.

[7] David Harris, "English as a Second Language: Testing," Overseas, 3, 5(January, 1964), p. 25.

[8] E. Companys et E. François, Les tests du b.e.l.c. (Paris: Bureau d'étude et de liaison pour l'enseignement du français dans le monde, 1966), p. 13.

In the United States

> . . . The problem of oral-aural tests received public mention as early as 1919 when Thomas S. Fiske, Secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board, published a report in which he urged the desirability and discussed some of the difficulties of such tests.[11]

And the Board of Regents (New York) ruled that beginning in 1926 all teachers of Modern Languages must have oral certification in the languages in which they give instruction.[12] But Furness stated in 1953 that only two New York State Colleges, Columbia and Cornell seemed to have followed the recommendations and they had done so for only a small part of the students entering.[13] The American College Entrance examination still has only an optional audio-comprehension section.[14] Coleman in his 1949 bibliography on language teaching listed only one item out of 800 related to oral testing.[15] Valette under the heading "Oral Objective Testing in the Classroom" somehow avoids the subject of oral production and writes only of aural tests.[16] Jones, describing a test that he has constructed, says that

---

[9] W. C. Ferguson, "Aural and Oral-aural Tests in French," School, XVIII, 8(April, 1930), p. 723.

[10] M. Sniderman, "Looking Back and Ahead," Canadian Modern Language Review, 20, 4(June, 1964), pp. 13-16.

[11] Edna L. Furness, "Historical Background of Audition Testing of Spanish," Modern Language Journal, 13(January, 1953), p. 23.

[12] W. C. Decker, "Oral and Aural Tests as Integral Parts of the Regents Examination," Modern Language Journal, (1925). p. 369.

[13] Furness, op. cit., p. 124.

[14] College Entrance Examination Board, A Description of the College Supplementary Achievement Tests (Princeton, N.J.: College Examination Board, 1963), p. 5.

[15] Algernon Coleman, An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, Vol. III, 1937-42 (New York: King's Crown Press, 1949), p. 365.

> . . . the difficulty of the test given in written form is approximately the same as its difficulty in oral form, and that therefore, given as a written test, it is a practical means of measuring the pronunciation of groups of students.[17]

One could be lead to similar conclusions by Starr who reports a correlation of .83 ± 11.72 between the MLA Proficiency listening, reading and writing tests and the speaking tests.[18]

The assumption implicit in this line of action is that one can evaluate the speaking skill through the other language skills. But it is Lado's contention that:

> There are . . . four skills the mastery of which does not advance evenly. We have thus four more variables to be tested, namely the degree of achievement in speaking, understanding, reading, and writing.[19]

Paterno appears to agree, because she states that:

> . . . Language learning is a complex thing--made up of many different aspects. . . . It is a mistake to think that by measuring one aspect you measure all others, that any one aspect will give an index to the whole.[20]

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[16] R. M. Valette, "Oral Objective Testing in the Classroom," German Quarterly, 38(March, 1965), pp. 179-187.

[17] J. B. Jones, "Objective Testing of Pronunciation at the College Level," Quarterly Journal of Speech, 24(February, 1938), p. 64.

[18] Wilmarth W. Starr, "MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students," PMLA, 77, 4, part 2(September, 1962), pp. 31-37.

[19] Lado, op. cit., p. 25.

[20] Adelaida Paterno, "Foreign Language Testing," Teaching English As a Second Language, H. B. Allan, editor (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 378.

Agard and Dunkel likewise concluded as a result of their investigations that each skill develops independently:

> As to the assumption made in some quarters that oral-aural competence automatically creates reading ability and that consequently the latter need not be specifically taught, there is evidence *per contra* so far as the experiments observed are concerned.[21]

Lado, too, made similar findings:

> The product-moment coefficient between the test of Aural Perception and the test of Oral Production--The Sound System is .30 ± 14. . . . The corollary to this relatively low correlation is that we cannot use aural perception data as a measure of pronunciation; pronunciation has to be measured separately.[22]

A second manifestation of the neglect in testing of oral proficiency is the attempt to use partial production techniques for its evaluation.[23] Lado documented in 1953 his claim to the high correlation between the results of partial production and speaking tests,[24] but the validity of using pencil and paper tests to evaluate oral proficiency was questioned seriously by George among others.[25]

A high correlation between the results of tests of different abilities has little meaning according to Carroll:

> . . . speaking ability and reading ability are logically quite

---

[21] F. B. Agard and H. B. Dunkel, *An Investigation of Second Language Teaching* (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1948), p. 291.

[22] Robert Lado, *Measurement in English as a Foreign Language with Special Reference to Spanish-Speaking Adults* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1950), p. 140.

[23] Lado. 1961, *op. cit.*, pp. 96-104.

[24] Robert Lado, "Test the Language," *Report of the Fourth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching*, A. A. Hill, editor (Washington: Georgetown University Press), 4 (September, 1953),p.30.

[25] H. V. George, "Testing--Another Point of View," *English Language Teaching*, 16(1962), pp. 72-77.

> different kinds of performances, because one can exist without the other; this is true even though they may be rather highly correlated in a given group of people simply because this group of learners had common training experiences which led them to perform equally well, on the average, on both types of performance.[26]

The third type of deficiency in our testing of oral skill is only mentioned here because it is to be discussed in greater detail later on. It consists of singling out a narrow aspect of oral proficiency, such as pronunciation, and treating it as if it were the whole skill. Keating's report on the effectiveness of language laboratories is an outstanding example of this misuse of tests.[27] Sniderman, who justifies his action by the lack of voice recording facilities for students, reports basing oral evaluation on a reading pronunciation test.[28] Constructive work in the development of tests for only some aspects of oral proficiency is likely to delay facing up to the need for more complete evaluation of oral proficiency by postponing a confrontation with the more difficult areas.[29]

More recent publications indicate that there has been more activity in the field of oral testing since 1945.[30] Golby stated in 1964 that henceforth the language examinations of the British Secondary Schools Examination Council would allot 25% of the marks for oral proficiency.[31] Pimsleur claims that there are now "three tests of speaking proficiency . . . which meet the criteria mentioned,"[32] namely, validity, reliability, ease of administration, and objectivity of scoring. But in spite of an increasing general concern for the evaluation of oral proficiency, this study attempts to show that there are still tremendous gaps to be filled in this area. But even if there are gaps, the assertion made in 1929 by Henmon that "standardized group tests for pronunciation and oral composition which could be administered widely seem almost impossibilities,"[33] is no longer defensible.

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[26] John B. Carroll, "Fundamental Considerations in Testing for English Language Proficiency," Teaching English as a Second Language, H. B. Allan, editor (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 367.

[27] Raymond F. Keating, A Study of the Effectiveness of Language Laboratories (New York: Institute of Administrative Research, 1963), p.61.

[28] M. Sniderman, "Marking Oral Work in Basic French," Scholastic (Secondary Edition) 28(March, 1940), pp. 595-597.

[29] Pierre Léon, "Les tests en prononciation," The Canadian Modern Language Review, 22, 4(May, 1966), pp. 16-27; Paul Pimsleur, "Testing in Foreign Language Teaching-Speaking Skill," Trends in Language Teaching, Albert Valdman, editor (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966), p. 200.

[30] Howard Lee Nostrand, David William Foster, and Clay Benjamin Christensen, Research on Language Teaching. An Annotated International Bibliography, 1945-64 (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1965).

The Need for Definition of Oral Proficiency

The evaluation of oral proficiency has suffered from lack of a clear and complete definition of the term.

The investigator surveyed the work of the last forty years in oral testing to try to gain a clearer understanding of what those interested in the field have considered oral proficiency to be. The findings which are summarized in Table I reveal an even greater diversity than Moses found in his survey of first language speech tests.[34]

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[31] T. W. P. Golby, "Advances in Examination Techniques," Advances in the Teaching of Modern Languages, B. Lobbish, editor (New York: Macmillan, 1964), p. 131.

[32] Pimsleur, 1966, op. cit., p. 195.

[33] V. A. C. Henmon, Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages (New York: Macmillan, 1929), p. 3.

[34] E. R. Moses, "Survey of Speech Tests in Thirty American Universities and Colleges, 1940-41," Quarterly Journal of Speech, 28(April, 1942), pp. 206-211.

It was possible to group all the proposed oral tests into the following fourteen categories:

1. Pronunciation through repetition or reading.
2. Production of utterances in response to specific directions given in the first or second language; for example, "Ask her if she is tired."
3. Transformation of one structure to another, such as changing a present to a future or a positive to a negative.
4. Substitution of one item for another; for example, a pronoun for a noun.
5. Integration of two structures into one; for example, embedding a relative clause.
6. Building in echelon; that is to say, successively adding in a cumulative fashion several short items to an initial short utterance.
7. Recall of a body of previously learned language as a result of oral or visual prompting. (Visual stimuli are either graphic or pictorial.)
8. Translation.
9. Completion of a sentence or a story.

Legend for Table I

( )--year of publication

* --date not available

1,2--first or second language

OVS--oral or visual stimuli

NG --repetition or reading

EY --sentence or story

LR --live or recorded partner

FC --free or cued

OVC--oral or visual cue

X --proposed, type unspecified

TABLE I

TYPES OF ORAL PRODUCTION TEST ITEMS PROPOSED BETWEEN 1929 AND 1966 CLASSIFIED BY AUTHOR AND TYPE

	Pronunciation-NG 1	Direction-1, 2 2	Transformation 3	Substitution 4	Integration 5	Echelon 6	Recall-OVS 7	Translation 8	Completion-EY 9	Paraphrase-OVS 10	Conversation-LR 11	Question-FC, OVC 12	Monologue-OVS 13	Reaction 14	Total
Greenleaf (29)	G														1
Hennon (29)	X												X		2
Haley (41)	G														1
Walker (41)	G										L				2
Hudgins (43)	G														1
Kaulfers (44)		2													1
Bottke; Milligan(45)	NG														1
Angiolillo (47)								X		OV		F	O		4
Agard; Dunkel (48)		2									R	C,V	O		4
Newmark (48)		2										F,O			2
Pargment (48)	G									OV	L	X			4
West (52)													O		1
Anderson (53)	G										L	C,V			3
Stabb (55)										X		F,O	V		3
Sapon (56)	N	X										X	V		4
Yamagiwa (57)	G	1		X				X	X	X	L	F,O	V		9
McCallien; Taylor(58)	G										L				2
Lambert (53)(56)(59)		X						X	E					X	4

TABLE I (continued)

	Pronunciation 1	Direction-1, 2 2	Transformation 3	Substitution 4	Integration 5	Echelon 6	Recall-OVS 7	Translation 8	Completion-EY 9	Paraphrase-OVS 10	Conversation-LR 11	Question-FC, OVC 12	Monologue-OVS 13	Reaction 14	Total
Bureau of SCD (60)	NG	1							X			O	OV		5
Creore; Hanzelli (60)	N											F,O	O		3
Delattre (60)(61)	N	1	X	X	X	X						F,C		X	8
Feil (61)	G										L				2
Lado (50)(51)(61)	G	1,2	X	X					E	V	L	C,O	OV		9
Sako (61)												X			1
Starr (60)(61)	NG		X									X	X		4
U of Cambridge (61)	G										L				2
U of London (61)	G										L				2
Mialaret; Malandain(61)													V		1
MLA-Proficiency (62)	NG												V		2
NIB of AATF (62)												F,C,O			1
Sr. Simon-Hermann (62)													O		1
Andrade et al (63)	N											C,V	V		3
B.C., Dept. of Ed.(63)	G										L		O		3
Calvet (63)												F,O			1
CREDIF (63)							V					F,V			2
Dodson (63)												F,O			1

TABLE I (continued)

	1 Pronunciation-NG	2 Direction-1, 2	3 Transformation	4 Substitution	5 Integration	6 Echelon	7 Recall-OVS	8 Translation	9 Completion-XY	10 Paraphrase-OVS	11 Conversation-LX	12 Question-FC, OVC	13 Monologue-OVS	14 Reaction	Total
MLA-Coop(63) Bryan(66)	NG											CV	V		3
Keating (63)	G														1
Rand (63)			X									X			2
Sr. Ste-Theresia (63)	N											X			2
Bondy (64)	N											FC,V	O		4
Brooks(57)(59)(60)(64)	NG	1				X				X		X	O		6
Scherer (64)	NG	1	X										V		4
Wilkins; Hoffman (64)	G														1
Girard (65)	G									V					2
Mackey (65)			X						X			X	X		4
Otter (65)											L	X	O		3
Paterno (65)	N	X										F	OV	X	5
Schatz (65)	G											F,C	V		3
Whitmore (65)												F	O		2
Léon (66)	N								X			FC,V			3
Pimsleur(59)(61)(66)	NG	2									X	C,V			4
Valdman (*)		1									L	X	OV		4
	35	13	6	3	1	2	1	3	6	7	14	32	26	3	152

10. Paraphrasing a passage just heard or read. (This differs from 7 where it is expected that the language structure will not be different from the model.)
11. Conversation with a person or a recording.
12. Question and answer with responses free or cued by the examiner. (Oral or visual stimuli are used for cueing.)
13. Monologue from oral or visual stimuli.
14. Linguistic reaction to a situation or an utterance.

The fourteen proposed classifications are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, pronunciation can be rated in most of the fourteen categories. Paraphrasing includes some recall. Linguistic reactions abound in conversations. Story completion is a monologue for which a few sentences serve as stimulus. Nevertheless the classification is useful because no two categories are identical and because this type of classification does help one to discover basic conflicts in the perception of the nature of proficiency.

Categories 1 to 10 differ from 11 to 14 in the degree of linguistic control that the examiner can impose on the examinee. In categories 1 to 10, it is possible to force the subject to produce whatever item is selected for testing but in categories 11 to 14 the examinee would find it easier to skirt a problem area, thus tending to thwart the most diligent efforts of the examiner. The survey revealed that nine out of fifty-three designers of tests did not consider it necessary to use techniques in the 1 to 10 group while nine other designers of tests felt likewise about the 11 to 14 group. In other words, of the fifty-three surveyed, nine testers implied that it was possible to judge proficiency from a series of objective precise observations and nine implied that global impressions were more representative of proficiency. Global impressions seem to be gaining in popularity since the nine reported were published between 1961 and 1965. But more important, the overwhelming majority of the test designers implied that a complete evaluation of oral proficiency would include proof of ability to handle a series of individual problems predetermined by interlanguage contrastive analysis as well as proof of an integrated facile performance.

There is also common agreement upon the necessity of evaluating mastery of specific pronunciation problems. The reading or repetition pronunciation test technique was the most popular of the fourteen techniques (35 out of 53). The ease of preparation, administration and scoring of this type of item may account for its popularity as much as conviction about its importance. One should keep in mind the fact that many tests use the other techniques too for rating pronunciation.

Conversation, question, and monologue are the next three most frequent techniques. Of the 152 choices made by the 53 test designers surveyed, 62 are either conversation, question, or monologue. Here again is an indication of the general belief in the necessity of evaluating the integrated speaking skill in spite of the problems of scoring that these techniques pose. The belief that these techniques approach a real-life situation may also explain their popularity.

The next most popular technique is giving directions that will cause the subject to give a specific response (13 out of 53). Nine of the techniques have gained only token acceptance ranging from 7 to 1 out of a possible 53, well below a mean acceptance of 10.8. Translation is proposed by only 3 out of 53.

The survey also revealed a wide range in the number of techniques accepted by individual test designers. This wide range is represented diagrammatically in Figure 1. Fourteen designers of tests proposed only one technique, thirteen proposed only two, nine proposed only three , and eleven proposed only four. A few suggested a great variety. Two designers suggested five techniques, one suggested six techniques, one suggested eight, and two suggested nine. The average number of techniques by each examiner is 2.85.

The preference for a small number of techniques revealed by the survey is an indication that the concept of sampling the whole inventory of problems proposed by Lado[35] has not been unanimously popular.[36] Several test designers agree with Carroll who said:

> I recommend tests in which less attention is paid to specific structure points or lexicon than to the total communicative effect of an utterance. . . .Indeed the overconscientious use of the bilingual comparison axiom could lead to different tests of English proficiency for each native language group, and a virtual impossibility of establishing common standards of English language proficiency across native language groups.[37]

Carroll prefers the "integrative" approach because it (1) entails more diffuse sampling, (2) depends less upon the specifics of a particular course, (3) makes the difficulty of the linguistic task subjectively more obvious to the evaluator and (4) makes contrastive analysis less necessary.[38]

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[35] Lado, 1953, op. cit., p. 30.

[36] J. A. Upshur, "Language Proficiency Testing and the Contrastive Analysis Dilemna," Language Learning, 12, 2(1962), pp. 123-128.

[37] Carroll, 1965, op. cit., pp. 369-370.

[38] Ibid., p. 370.

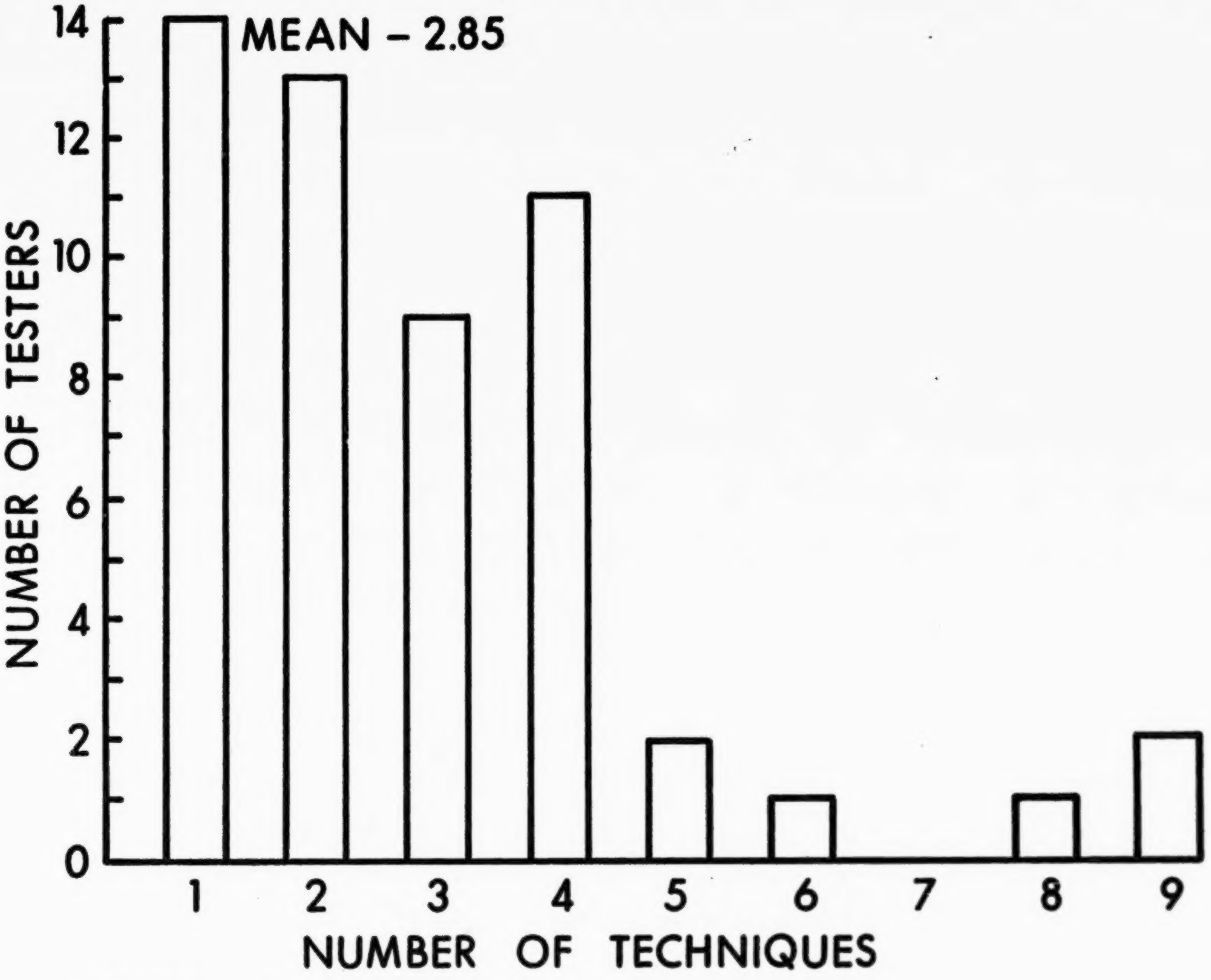

FIGURE 1

TESTERS GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF TESTING TECHNIQUES EACH PROPOSED

Within each of these fourteen classifications are hidden other differences. Some testers use both oral and visual stimuli apparently because they are aware of the interference of the graphic symbol, of the assistance of the spoken symbol, and of the vagueness and linguistic remoteness of the pictorial stimuli. Others have selected either the the oral or the visual, and are apparently unconcerned about the influence of the stimuli upon oral production.

Other important differences are found in giving directions in the first or second language, in submitting the examinee to a conversation within the rigid framework of a recording as opposed to human response, or in allowing or refusing full freedom in the selection of material for answering a question.

In summary, therefore, it can be said that a survey of proposed and existing tests reveals a great diversity of opinions about what are satisfactory techniques for evaluating the development of oral proficiency. And since not all techniques are equally suitable for evaluating every aspect of oral proficiency, the diversity revealed by the survey indicates a lack of agreement about the nature of oral proficiency. The diversity also points to a lack of agreement about what are the most effective methods to cause proficiency to be demonstrated.

Sufficiency, accuracy, and fluency are the three terms used by the American Department of State to describe oral proficiency.[39] Carton uses the terms "comprehensibility" and "pleasantness".[40] Twaddell breaks it down into accuracy and fluency.[41] Dodson describes it by this formula:[42]

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[39] H. Cleveland, G. J. Mangone, and J. C. Adams, The Overseas Americans (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), pp. 250-251.

[40] Carton, op. cit., p. 11.

$$\text{Proficiency} = \frac{\text{number of words}}{\text{number of errors}} \text{ X } 10 \text{ X } 1 \pm \frac{\text{deviation from average number of W}}{500}$$

He calls the 500 in the denominator a fluency factor. Pimsleur analyses accuracy into words for concrete objects and abstractions, pronunciation and syntactic patterns and describes fluency as ease in thought expression.[43] This differs little from Yamagiwa's enumeration of components: pronunciation, accentuation, intonation, vocabulary, grammar, and readiness in expression and response.[44] Lado's definition is somewhat more complete, describing oral proficiency in these terms:

> . . . the ability to use in essentially normal communication situations the signaling systems of pronunciation, stress intonation, grammatical structure, and vocabulary of the foreign language at a normal rate of delivery for native speakers of the language.[45]

However, proficiency is not the ability to express complex abstractions because few native adult speakers have this ability. It is rather the ability to express through speech such thoughts and concepts as are reasonable for the intellectual capacity of the subject.[46] A measurement of proficiency is in no sense a measurement of all-embracing intellectual competence. It cannot even begin to sound "ante" and "post-language" intellectual activity.[47] In Chomsky's distinction between *competence* and *performance* or de Saussure's distinction between *langue* and *parole*, proficiency is *performance* or *parole*.[48] It is not a complete reflection of competence because of memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention, and errors that don't result from lack of linguistic competence. It has to be described in terms of norms because there are different standards of performance for individual speakers--all of which may be considered of native quality. The quality of performance of the individual may fluctuate from one situation to another.

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[41] Twaddell, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-7.

[42] Dodson, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-5.

[43] Paul Pimsleur, "French Speaking Proficiency Tests," *French Review*, 34 (April, 1961), pp. 470-479.

[44] Joseph K. Yamagiwa, "A Check-list of Tests for Various Types of Proficiency in a Foreign Language," *Language Learning*, 7, 3 & 4 (1956-57), pp. 99-124.

[45] Lado, 1961, *op. cit.*, p. 241.

[46] B. M. Bazan, "The Danger of Assumption Without Proof," *Modern Language Journal*, 48(October, 1948), p. 338.

The Need for More Objectivity in Evaluating Oral Proficiency

It is shown in the preceeding section that there is lack of agreement about the techniques most appropriate for eliciting oral production and consequently about the aspects of oral production that need to be taken into consideration to arrive at a valid evaluation of oral proficiency. The same lack of unanimity is revealed in an informal survey of rating scales done by the investigator. Sixteen samples that were selected for the diversity they represent are summarized in the following list:

1. Walker (1941) rates proficiency globally on a five-point scale.
2. Kaulfers (1944) classifies proficiency into four levels: (1) unintel-

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[47] J. de Ajuriaguerra and others, *Problèmes de psycholinguistique-symposium de l'association de psychologie scientifique de langue française* (Paris: Presses universitaires de France, 1963), pp. 51-72.

[48] Noam Chomsky, *Syntactic Structures* (The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1965). pp. 3-4.

ligible (2) partially intelligible (3) intelligible but labored (4) readily intelligible.

3. Agard and Dunkel (1948) distinguish three levels of proficiency: (1) ability to report a single act or situation (2) ability to express a sequence of ideas fluently (3) ability to converse.
4. Yamagiwa (1955-1956) rates each of (1) pronunciation (2) correctness of vocabulary and grammar (3) fluency on a five-point scale.
5. Bueckel (1957) describes the following five levels of proficiency: (1) must resort to first language and gestures (2) follows verbal translation (3) intelligible but vocabulary limited (4) good expression (5) full command.
6. Harris (1961) rates on a five-point scale (1) pronunciation (2) grammar and word-order (3) vocabulary (4) speed (5) sentence length as demonstrated in a ten-minute conversation.
7. Palmer (1961) rates pronunciation and fluency on a five-point scale.
8. FLES (1962) names the following five levels of proficiency: (1) serious mistakes (2) slight mistakes; subject requires prompting (3) no mistakes; subject requires prompting (4) slight mistakes (5) no mistakes.
9. Starr (1962) gives the MLA Statement of Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages. It provides a lengthy description of how one would distinguish the following three levels: (1) minimal (2) good (3) superior.
10. British Columbia Department of Education (1963) rates content and correctness on a twenty-point scale.
11. Foreign Service Institute (1963) uses a five-point rating of

(1) accent (2) grammar (3) vocabulary (4) fluency (5) comprehension!

12. MLA Cooperative Language Tests (1963) use a five-point rating of (1) meaningfulness (2) naturalness (3) correctness.
13. Guerra, Abrahamson, and Newmark (1964) use the scale proposed by Kaulfers in 1944.
14. Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) rate pronunciation, morphology and syntax in a directed utterance on a five-point scale; pronunciation morphology, syntax, and vocabulary in free responses on an eight-point scale; and intonation on an eight-point scale.
15. MLA Proficiency Tests (1964) contain a five-point rating of (1) vocabulary (2) pronunciation (3) structure (4) fluency which accounts for more than 60% of the total score.
16. Le ministère des affaires extérieures du Canada (1966) rates proficiency globally on a four-point scale.

The scales vary from three to twenty in their number of gradations. The five-point scale is the most popular. The ratings are for qualities such as proficiency, intelligibility, type of situation handled, pronunciation, correctness of vocabulary and grammar, fluency, speed, nearness to the first language, content, meaningfulness, and naturalness.

The following attempt by Guénot to justify his classification of oral proficiency into three levels is typical:

> Insistons sur les trois étages d'acquisition: seuls ils nous permettent de définir le type de connaissance et d'aisance à pratiquer la langue que possèdent les sujets. Lorsqu'un schéma est répété correctement et correctement situé dans son contexte, le *premier* étage est assuré. Lorsque les sujets sont capables de faire convenablement la substitution à partir d'une sollicitation auditive qui sert d'amorce, qu'elle soit ou non accompagnée d'une sollicitation visuelle, le *deuxième* étage est en place. Lorsque, à partir d'une image ou d'une question ouverte, les sujets sont capables de parler

> correctement pendant quelques phrases, le troisième étage est en place.[49]

> On aura sans doute déja compris que ces trois étages sont des niveaux qui permettent de caractériser le progrès dans l'aptitude à manipuler la langue . . . .. Le subjonctif français n'est pas plus de troisième étage que les pronoms personnels. Chaque étage correspond à un palier dans l'édification d'une pratique correcte, d'une tournure de la langue à apprendre: au premier, on la répète pour bien l'articuler et la mémoriser; au deuxième, on substitue à divers endroits de la phrase des mots d'un paradigme équivalent, afin d'en bien analyser et d'en connaître mécaniquement le schéma; au troisième étage on est capable de produire cette phrase, ou toute autre équivalente du point de vue du sens, dans une forme correcte, appropriée, et qui peut être très sensiblement différente de la stimulation initiale (question ou autre).[50]

The question of why the characteristics selected for each level are more important than others that are ignored is left unanswered. The question of why proficiency is classified into three rather than into another number of levels is not answered satisfactorily either. And finally if the classifications proposed are the "right" ones, how can an evaluator be sure of classifying a language sample properly?

All these scales call for qualitative and subjective judgments. Until technology is able to produce equipment capable of scoring speech, speech (except for the few facts, such as rate of production, that are quantifiable) will have to be evaluated subjectively,[51] and this even when the marker focuses attention on one specific fact and marks it either right or wrong. Evaluation of speech must now be mostly subjective and the course of action open is to reduce subjectivity where it cannot be removed entirely. Subjectivity can be reduced by using only a two-point scale,[52] by describing precisely the language facts or qualities to be evaluated, and by focusing attention on one fact at a time.[53] According to Lado, five-point scales, to say nothing of twenty-point scales, are likely to be unreliable. But Bryan has provided evidence of the high reliability of the five-point scales used in the Modern Language Association Cooperative and Proficiency Tests.[54]

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[49] Jean Guénot, Pédagogie audio-visuelle des débuts de l'anglais (Editions Sabri, 1964), p. 234.

[50] Jean Guénot, Clés pour les langues vivantes (Editions Seghers, 1964), p. 165.

[51] Harlan Lane and Roger Buiten, "A Self-Instructional Device for Conditioning Accurate Prosody," Trends in Language Teaching, Albert Valdman, editor (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966), pp. 159-174; D. B. Fry and P. Denes, "The Solution of Some Fundamental Problems in Mechanical Speech Recognition," Language and Speech, 1(1958), pp. 35-58.

The problems of reliability in the rating of speech will remain difficult even with the assistance of statisticians. If reliability is more difficult to obtain in making global judgments of such qualitative characteristics as intellegibility and naturalness, one avenue of progress would be found in breaking down these general terms into their components in order to obtain a more precise description of the nature of proficiency. At the present too many scales require the evaluator to define various degrees of proficiency without having provided a precise definition of the nature of proficiency.

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[52] G. Mialaret et C. Malandain, Test C.G.M. 62 pour apprécier le niveau des connaissances linguistiques CREDIF (Paris: Didier, 1962), pp. 13-32.

[53] Lado, 1961, op. cit., pp. 29-80.

[54] Miriam M. Bryan, "The MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests--An Innovation in Foreign Language Testing," The Bulletin of the Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association, 43, 2(April, 1965), pp. 99-100.

The Need to Identify Factors of Oral Proficiency

Assumptions are made about factors that contribute to proficiency but little evidence is available as to the relative importance of the factors in proficiency. According to their inclinations, individual evaluators may be more highly impressed by certain factors than by others. In the tests that require both controlled and free responses, an evaluator may base his evaluation on the same factor in both types of performances (e.g. certain allophonic qualities) and pay little attention to others that are equally or more important. Test constructors are frequently content to demonstrate scorer and interscorer reliability important as that may be.[55] Little is said about the validity of the scores. In short any lay native speaker can distinguish between the most and least proficient, but even the professional finds it hard to state in precise terms what is the nature of the proficiency he recognizes. Proficiency has not been defined in operational terms.

> What seems to be needed before we can make significant improvements in our tests in the way of weighting various aspects of language learning in an equitable way, is a series of detailed factorial studies that would tell us what aspects are differentiable.[56]

> What we must establish is the degree to which various linguistic components . . . contribute to the naive layman's very valid impression of fluency, grammatical accuracy, stylistic congruity, and accent.[57]

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[55] Miriam M. Bryan, "MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students," The DFL Bulletin, 5, 1(October), p. 5.

[56] Paula Thibault, "Implications of Experience with College Board Language Tests," Report of the Fourth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching, A. A. Hill, editor (Washington: Georgetown University Press), 4(September, 1953), p. 25.

[57] Albert Valdman, "Programmed Instruction and Foreign Language Teaching," Trends in Language Teaching, Albert Valdman, editor (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 138.

Three commonly recognized factors of proficiency are (1) language complexity, (2) rate of output, and (3) pronunciation. Frogner, Davis, Smith, Miller, Piaget, Strickland, Loban, and Labrant, all concluded from their observations that as a child's first language develops he uses more compound and complex sentences.[58] Studies showing a parallel development of language complexity in the adult learner are lacking. Mialaret and Malandain weight rate of output heavily toward complexity but contrarily to Loban they consider linking verbs as contributing negatively to complexity.[59] Thorndike, on the other hand, concluded from his observations of adults that the language complexity of a person fluctuated sufficiently to be meaningless.[60] Because the rate of output is a readily observable and a measurable aspect of language, it has been considered and used frequently. Young, Fries, McCarthy, Lambert, The American Language Institute, Carroll, American University Language Center, Marty, Dodson, and Calvet proposed a count of word output as a measurement of proficiency.[61] Mialaret and Malandain count "ideas".[62]

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[58] Ellen Frogner, "Problems of Sentence Structure in Pupils' Themes," *The English Journal*, 22(November, 1933), pp. 743-744; E. A. Davis, *Linguistic Skill in Twins, Singletons with Siblings, and Only Children from Age 5 to 10 Years* (Institute of Child Welfare Monograph Series, No. 14)(Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1937); M. E. Smith, "Some Light on the Problem of Bilingualism as Found from a Study of the Progress in the Mastery of English among Preschool Children of Non-American Ancestry in Hawaii," *Genetic Psychological Monograms*, 21(1939), p. 268; G. A. Miller, *Language and Communication* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951), p. 150; Jean Piaget, *Le langage et la pensée chez l'enfant* (Neuchatel, Suisse: Delachaux et Niestlé, 1962), p. 29; Ruth G. Strickland, "The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children," *Bulletin of School Education*, 38, 4(Bloomington: Indiana University, 1962), p. 61; Walter D. Loban, *The Language of Elementary School Children* (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), p. 61; Lou Labrant, "A Study of Certain Language Developments of Children in Grades 4 - 12 Inclusive," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 14, 4(1933), pp. 415-475.

[59] G. Mialaret et C. Malandain, *op. cit.*, pp. 13-22.

[60] E. L. Thorndike, *Studies in the Psychology of Languages* (New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1938).

There are those who, on the other hand, suggest that rate of output is not an important factor of proficiency.

> Speed of speech is a different matter for the hearer and speaker. As a hearer, one must follow the flow of language at a speed determined by the person to whom one is listening. As a speaker, one can choose his own rate of speed. The learner must listen as fast as the native speaker is accustomed to talk. But as a speaker he is well advised not to try to equal the speed of the native speaker. He has nothing to lose by being deliberate.[63]

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[61] F. M. Young, "An Analysis of Certain Variables in a Developmental Study of Language," Genetic Psychology Monographs, 23(1941), p. 127; Charles C. Fries, The Structure of English (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1952), p. 291; Dorothea McCarthy, "Language Development in Children, " A Manual of Child Psychology, Leonard Carmichael, editor (New York: Wiley, 1954), pp. 542- 544; Wallace E. Lambert, J. Havelka, and R. C. Gardner, "Linguistic Manifestations of Bilingualism," American Journal of Psychology, 72(1959), p. 80; The American Language Institute, Oral Rating Form for Rating Language Proficiency in Speaking and Understanding English (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University, 1960); John B. Carroll, "A Factor Analysis of Verbal Abilities," Psychometrika, 6(1941), pp. 296, 299; John B. Carroll "Problems of Testing Language Instruction. Some Principles of Language Testing," Report of the Fourth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching, A. A. Hill, editor (Washington: Georgetown University Press), 4(September, 1953), p. 8; The American University Language Center, "Instructions for Rating Aural/Oral Proficiency in English Using the AULC Interview Rating Form," English Testing Guidebook, Part I, Melvin J. Fox and Davis Harris, editors, English as a Second Language: Development and Testing (Ford Foundation reprint from Overseas) 3, 5(January, 1964); Fernand Marty, Programming a Basic Foreign Language Course: Prospects for Self-Instruction (Roanoke, Va.: Audio-visual Publications, 1962), p. 3; C. J. Dodson, Oral Examinations (Aberystwyth, Wales: Faculty of Education, University College of Wales, 1963), p. 4; M. M. Calvet, L'enseignement du français en Afrique. IV-A. Le français parlé. Etude phonétique. Interférences du phonétisme Wolof (Dakar, Sénégal: Centre de linguistique appliquée, 1964), p. 9.

[62] Mialaret et Malandain, op. cit., pp. 13-22.

[63] Nelson Brooks, "Conspectus for the Preparation of Materials and Tests for Instruction in Foreign Language Proficiency," (New Haven: Yale University, 1959), mimeo.

Another factor which seems deceptively easy to observe is the quality of pronunciation. This may be due in part to the small number of phonemes in the sound system of a language. And as was shown earlier, many designers of tests were of the impression that rating pronunciation was rating speech. The following are a few of those who gave attention to rating pronunciation: Delattre, Lado, American Language Institute, American University Language Center, Moulton,Dodson, and Carton.[64]

Among the other factors not proposed as frequently (4) hesitation is found.[65] It is believed by some to be just a negative correlate of rate of production. It may also be considered to be more a psychological than a linguistic manifestation.

(5) Sentence length is considered to be a reliable predictor of

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[64] Pierre Delattre, "Testing Student's Progress in the Language Laboratory," International Journal of American Linguistics, F. J. Oinas, editor (Bloomington, Indiana: University of Indiana, 1960) 26, 4 (October, 1960), pp. 77-98; Pierre Delattre, Comparing the Phonetic Features of English, French, German, and Spanish (Heidelberg: Julius Groos Verlag, 1965); Robert Lado, "Phonemics and Pronunciation Tests," Modern Language Journal, 35(1951), pp. 531-542; Robert Lado, "Phonemics and Pronunciation Tests," Modern Language Journal, 40(1956), pp. 335-345: The American Language Institute, op. cit.; The American University Center, op. cit.; W. G. Moulton, "Toward a Classification of Pronunciation Errors," Modern Language Journal, 46(March, 1962), pp. 101-109; Dodson, op. cit.; Aaron S. Carton, Rating Speech--Many Considerations, Some Data (New York: New York University School of Education, Experimental Teaching Center, 1964), mimeo.

[65] L. E. Travis, W. Johnson, and J. Shover, "The Relation of Bilingualism to Stuttering," Journal of Speech Disorders, 2 (1937), pp. 185-189; Freida Goldman-Eisler, "The Predictability of Words in Context and the Length of Pauses in Speech," Language and Speech, 1 (1958), pp. 226-231; Howard Maclay and Charles E. Osgood, "Hesitation Phenomena in Spontaneous English Speech," Word, 15 & 16 (1959-60), pp. 19-44; Jane Blankenship and Christian Kay, "Hesitation Phenomena in English Speech: A Study in Distribution," Word, 19 & 20 (1963- 64), pp. 360-372.

proficiency.[66] Carroll, Mackey, and Marty proposed that (6) speed of reaction is one also,but Loban and Lambert reached the opposite conclusion.[67]

Mialaret and Malandain, Dodson, and The American University Language Center consider grammatical (7) correctness in their ratings of proficiency.[68] The American Language Institute and Braine proposed control of (8) syntax as a factor.[69]

Fries proposed that the choice of (9) words was a factor. The American University Language Center, The American Language Institute, Carroll and those like Gougenheim who have developed word lists would certainly agree that vocabulary plays an important role in proficiency.[70]

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[66] Fries, *op. cit.*, p. 291; McCarthy, *op. cit.*, p. 544-545; The American Language Institute, *op. cit.*; Walter Loban, *Language Ability in the Middle Grades of the Elementary School, Final Report to USOE* (University of California, 1961), p. 131; R. W. Brown and Ursula Bellugi, "Three Processes in the Child's Acquisition of Syntax," *Harvard Educational Review*, 34, 2(1964), p. 134; Carton, *op. cit.*, p. 15;

[67] Carroll, 1953, *op. cit.*, p. 9; Fernand Marty, "Objectivity and the Foreign Language Teacher," *International Journal of American Linguistics*, 32, 1(January, 1966), pp. 108-121; William Francis Mackey, *Language Teaching Analysis* (London: Longmans, Green & Co. Ltd., 1965), p. 414; Loban, 1961, *op. cit.*, p. 132; Wallace Lambert, "Measurement and Analysis of the Linguistic Dominance of Bilinguals," *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology*, 50(1951), p. 199; Wallace E. Lambert, "Psychological Approaches to Second-Language Learning and Bilingualism," *Curricular Change in the Foreign Languages* (Princeton: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963), p. 28.

[68] Mialaret et Malandain, *op. cit.*, pp. 13-22; Dodson, *op. cit.*, p. 3; American University Language Center, *op. cit.*

[69] American Language Institute, *op. cit.*; M. D. Braine, "On Learning the Grammatical Order of Words," *Psychological Review*, 70 (1963), p. 348.

[70] Fries, *op. cit.*, pp. 291-292; American University Language Center, *op. cit.*; American Language Institute, *op. cit.*; Carroll, 1953, *op. cit.*, p. 9; G. Gougenheim and others, *L'élaboration du français fondamental* (1er degré) (Paris: Didier, 1964).

The list of factors that have been proposed at one time or another is a long one: (10) memory-span[71] (11) accuracy[72] (12) fluency[73] (13) speech attitude[74] (14) continuity[75] (15) comprehensibility[76] and (16) pleasantness.[77] Many of these terms are as vague as the concept they offer to explain.

The Relative Importance of Known Factors of Proficiency

The sixteen factors of oral proficiency that have been enumerated in the preceeding section are not all identifiable with any degree of objectivity. In fact, in many instances their legitimacy has not been demonstrated. The possibility of recognition and the legitimacy of factors of oral proficiency lead to another question which is crucial in the domain of oral proficiency evaluation. The question has to do with relative importance of the known factors of proficiency and with the relative importance of their component parts.

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[71] B. F. Skinner, *Verbal Behavior* (New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1957), pp. 80-85; Carroll, 1941, *op. cit.*, p. 298; Robert Lado, "Memory-Span as a Factor in Second-Language Learning," *International Conference: Modern Foreign Language Teaching. Papers and Reports of Groups and Committees*. Preprints, Part I (Berlin: Paedagogische Arbeitsstelle und Sekretariat, Paedagogisches Zentrum, 1964).

[72] Freeman Twaddell, *Foreign Language Instruction at the Second Level. Teacher's Manual. Le français: parler et lire* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963), pp. 6-7.

[73] J. L. Gewirtz, "Studies in Word Fluency," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 72(June, 1948), p. 175; Twaddell, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-7; Loban, 1961 *op. cit.*, pp. 131-132.

[74] Carroll, 1941, *op. cit.*, p. 295.

[75] *Ibid.*, pp. 296-297; Loban, 1961. *op. cit.*, p. 136.

[76] Carton, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

[77] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

Some evaluators assume that all factors are of equal importance. Andrade and his associates give equal weighting to three factors: (1) pronunciation (2) grammar and syntax (3) fluency.[78] Lado believes in establishing a comprehensive list of contrastive problems and in attaching equal importance to testing each one.[79] Henrion warns against the dangers of selecting vocabulary on the basis of frequency.[80]

George on the other hand stresses that the frequency of occurrence of an element is an index of its usefulness in communication.[81] The research that resulted in the publication of "Le français fondamental" is based also upon the belief in the value of frequency counts to determine the importance of language elements.[82] A good example of the disparity in the frequency of occurrence of language elements is given by Bloch. He reports that the Japanese phonemes /p/ and /z/ did not occur in a sample text of 2000 running phonemes, while the phoneme /a/ occurred 296 times.[83] The study is based on the assumption that frequency of occurrence is an index to the importance of a language element. For that reason an important part of the investigation deals with frequency.

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[78] Manuel Andrade, John L. Hayman, and James T. Johnson, *Measurement of Speaking Skills in Elementary Level Spanish Instruction* (Denver-Stanford Project on the Context of Instructional Television)(Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, July, 1963), p. 2.

[79] Robert Lado, *Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests* (London: Longmans, 1961), p. 245.

[80] Pierre Henrion, "Statistique et vocabulaire; un mariage malheureux," *Les langues modernes*, 5(juillet-août, 1949), pp. 238-245.

[81] H. V. George, "Testing--Another Point of View," *English Language Teaching*, 16(1962), pp. 72-77.

[82] G. Gougenheim and others, *op. cit*.

[83] Bernard Bloch, "Studies in Colloquial Japanese, IV, Phonemics," *Language*, 26(1950), p. 115.

The Effect of Stimuli on the Nature of Language Output

An equally important question about oral production that needs to be considered is constancy within one individual. Carton found that variations in stimuli affected the quality of pronunciation.[84] Ferenczi found that perception of visuals depended on cultural background.[85] Gewirtz found that "word-fluency" is not the same when some restrictions are imposed on the language to be produced as when there are no restrictions.[86] Cattell in 1887 reported that it took more time to see and name a color than to see and name an object, and that it took more time to see and name an object than to see and say a printed word.[87] Osgood in 1953 reported that Karworki and his associates had reached similar conclusions in 1944.[88] Pillsbury and Meader reported studies by Griffitts which would indicate 90% of subjects being tested would respond better to visual stimuli, 6% to sound stimuli, and 4% to kinaesthetic stimuli.[89] The ratio of nouns-verbs to adjectives-adverbs was found by

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[84] Carton, op. cit., p. 11.

[85] Victor Ferenczi, La perception de l'espace projectif. Etude réalisée auprès des travailleurs africains analphabètes en France (Montreal: Didier, 1966).

[86] Gewirtz, op. cit., p. 175.

[87] J. Cattell, "Experiments on the Association of Ideas," Mind, 12(1887), p. 68.

[88] C. E. Osgood, Method and Theory in Experimental Psychology (New York: Oxford University Press, 1953), p. 711.

[89] Walter B. Pillsbury and Clarence 1. Meader, The Psychology of Language (New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1928), p. 101.

Osgood to be higher in suicidal notes than in ordinary letters.[90] Children produce more "speech" in response to outdoor and picture situations.[91] Pictures, objects, and story stimuli have different effects on oral composition.[92] The situation can be summarized in Carroll's words:

> Try as we may to define style as the manner of treating subject matter the type of subject matter will in general impose constraints upon the possible kinds of stylistic treatment.[93]

From this evidence comes the need to investigate to what extent the examiner determines the type and quantity of language produced by the stimuli which he uses.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study attempts to clarify the nature of oral proficiency particularly as it applies to learners of French as a second language. It does this by trying to find out whether language complexity, rate of production, and frequency of hesitation are factors of proficiency. It tries to determine whether the speech of the less proficient differs in complexity, output, and hesitation from the speech of the more proficient. If the speech of the more and less proficient differ in these three dimensions, then evaluators of the development of oral proficiency can measure language on those three dimensions as part of the basis for assessing growth.

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[90] Charles E. Osgood, "Some Effects of Motivation on Style of Encoding," Style in Language, Thomas E. Sebeok, editor (Boston: The Technology Press, M.I.T., 1960), p. 30.

[91] Young, op. cit., p. 127.

[92] Royal Franklin Netzer, "Evaluation of a Technique for Measuring Improvement in Oral Composition," (Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Iowa, 1937), p. 39.

[93] John B. Carroll, "Vectors of Prose Style," Style in Language, Thomas E. Sebeok, editor (Boston: The Technology Press, M.I.T., 1960), p. 292.

Information about the relative importance of certain morphological and syntactical classes is developed from their relative frequency of occurrence. If there are differences between the frequency of occurrences in the following four classes: (1) pronouns (2) prepositions and conjunctions (3) determiners (4) word-order conflicts, then these differences should be reflected in the weighting to be given to these four classes in the construction of tests. This information may be more manageable for the test designer than a frequency count of individual words within these classes.

If rate of output is indeed found to be a factor of proficiency and it can be demonstrated only in a monologue of some considerable length, then examiners should know whether for reasons of economy it is possible to rate other factors of proficiency such as pronunciation from the same monologues. This study attempts to provide that practical information.

And, fourthly, this study provides the examiner some information on the effect of the nature of the stimulus on the nature of the language produced thereby indicating some precautions that have to be taken in the construction of tests.

CHAPTER II

> I was examined in Hebrew.
>
> "What is the Hebrew for 'the place of a skull'?"
>
> I replied, "Golgotha."
>
> "Very well," said the examiner, "you are competent for your degree."
>
> Earl of Eldon, Oxford, 1776.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

An attempt was made in Chapter I to show that it is important to evaluate oral proficiency completely. It was proposed that the success of oral proficiency evaluation can be improved in the five following ways: (1) by defining oral proficiency more clearly,(2) by introducing more objectivity into the rating of speech,(3) by verifying the authenticity of as many factors of proficiency as possible,(4) by establishing the relative importance of the factors of proficiency and of their components, and (5) by determining the effect of stimuli on the language produced.

Chapter II describes the selection of the subjects, the development of the testing instrument, the collection of the data, and the coding of the data. Then it provides a list of the hypotheses to be tested and concludes with limitations of the study.

Selection of the Subjects

To identify the factors of proficiency a comparison was made of the oral production of groups of subjects that were assumed to differ in that dimension. Three groups of ten subjects were selected:

1. Native speakers of French whose dominant language is still French and who have completed, at least, one 300-level University of Alberta French course or its equivalent, selected at random from the language-teaching methods classes (A - 1).
2. Native speakers of English who have completed, at least, one 300-level University of Alberta French course or its equivalent, selected at random from the language-teaching methods course (A - 2).
3. Native speakers of English who have completed one 200-level University of Alberta French course or its equivalent but no 300-level course, selected at random from language-teaching methods classes (B - 2).

This study is modelled after one done by W. E. Lambert.[1] This design made it possible to have, at least, two groups differing in proficiency; namely, A-1 and B-2. Depending on the effect of university training, group A-2 could be more like A-1 or B-2. The presence of group A-2 thus provided valuable information on the relation of university training to the development of oral proficiency. If the speech of the A-2 group was more like that of the A-1 group in some respects than others, one could hypothesize differential rates of development.

The subjects were all selected from the French teaching methods classes at the University of Alberta in the academic year 1966-67. The questionnaire for "Oral Proficiency Test Subjects" was administered to classify the subjects as to group.[2] A native-speaker of French is defined as one whose first language was French and who still considers French to be the language that he speaks with most ease. For people living in a predominantly English-speaking society and consequently gaining rapidly and constantly in their facility to use English it is not always easy to say which language they speak with most ease. These subjects were aware of a shifting language preference from day to day and from one subject of interest to another. All those who were unsure about their continued preference for French were excluded from the native sample. Of thirty-seven subjects who had learned to speak French as their first language, only ten remained sure of the dominance of French. Of these ten, two had received their elementary and secondary education in a predominantly French-speaking area of Quebec and one had been educated in France. Another had obtained his elementary schooling in Quebec.

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[1] Wallace E. Lambert, An Exploratory Study of the Developmental Aspects of Second-Language Acquisition(Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1953).

[2] Appendix A

Even though an attempt was made to make everyone feel that there was nothing to be gained from claiming a non-existent French dominance, a perusal of the language produced could lead one to conclude that some subjects were rather poor judges of their competence in French. Interviews conducted after the selection of the subjects led the investigator to believe that some of those excluded were more proficient than others that were included in the native sample.

All the subjects of the non-native groups had learned English as their first language. Subjects whose first language was not English were excluded because some of the problems in the instrument were selected on the basis of a French-English contrast. Command of a language closely related to French could have favored the development of French proficiency and masked the differences between native and non-natives. The non-native subjects were assigned to B-2 or A-2 on the basis of their university experience.

Since university standing in French is a criterion used in establishing the groups, the homogeneity of the groups may depend to a large extent upon the constancy and uniformity of the university's placement and promotion practices.

Most of the subjects of the non-native groups had studied French in grades X, XI, and XII. A few had started in grades VIII or IX. No information was obtained on the amount of oral work in the high school programs. One subject had done one year of French by correspondence. By and large these subjects had had few opportunities to use French outside of the classroom.

On the basis of the questionnaire the non-native speakers were divided into two groups, advanced and beginners. A sample of ten was drawn randomly from each group so that the sample would be representative of the group.

The thirty subjects chosen were asked to appear individually for tests and none refused.

No information was obtained about age, relative academic success, intelligence, proficiency in the first language, or emotional factors such as self confidence because these factors were not objects of study. The samples were predominantly female.

The samples could not be, strictly speaking, random since they were drawn from language methods classes. However, statistical analyses were done as if the samples were, in fact, random. Precautions were taken at the time of generalizing the findings in view of the lack of randomness.

Development of the Testing Instrument

The construction of the instrument was guided by four principles:

1. The subjects should provide a speech sample that is representative of their normal proficiency.
2. The samples of speech should be adequate to permit analysis in terms of complexity, output, hesitation and frequency of various elements.
3. There should be samples obtained under diverse conditions to permit the observation of constancy in the qualities of the subjects' speech.
4. The conditions under which all the subjects produced should be identical if possible so that differences discovered between the subjects could be attributed to the subjects rather than to external factors.

To achieve the first objective, generally familiar topics were chosen. Because one cannot assume that a subject will speak freely on any familiar topic, several ideas were suggested on each topic by means of a monologue or a series of illustrations. The same topics and ideas were used with all the subjects. In the trial runs and in the actual tests, it was found that the speakers needed only a small part of the ideas offered. These topics and ideas served especially to stimulate the imagination. The speaker was left completely free to select from the many avenues offered and the variety of ideas proposed. The variety in the methods of treating these ideas and the extent to which they were ignored is a good indicator that the subjects felt considerable freedom. Two experienced language teachers who were consulted believed that any student at this level should be able to produce freely on the subjects proposed.

An effort was made in wording the directions of the instrument to avoid influencing the speaker by proposing artificial standards of proficiency--the emphasis was on plain ordinary language.[3] Even though every effort was made to have all subjects feel comfortable and know that formal or literary language was not required, only partial success was achieved. The subjects' comments after the test about the difficulty of the task, about the inadequacy of their language, or their lack of ability to 'speak' indicated that they were concerned about their image.

To assist naturalness of production the following steps were taken. The first monologue of each subject was for practice only. The subjects were prevented from using pencil and paper in order to discourage them from using written-language style. They were given one minute to organize their thinking. Trial runs had revealed that one minute was sufficient for most subjects, and with longer preparation , impatience and boredom had begun to appear. The subjects were guaranteed anonymity of their productions. Except for an English version of the directions [4] which they were asked to read before the use of the instrument , none of the directions or stimuli were crthographic and none were in English. Thus was avoided the risk of interference from orthography or English with the subject's oral and French production.

The preceding discussion indicated what steps were taken to favor normal speech. The discussion now proceeds to the adequacy of the samples.

Different testers disagree about what constitutes an adequate sample of speech. Thornburg reported taking thirty minutes to test a subject.[5] Calvet gave questions to which the students spoke until they ran out.[6] Dodson considered five minutes necessary,[7] Agard and Dunkel measured a two-minute production,[8] Creore and Hanzeli chose one-minute,[9] and Lado selected the best thirty seconds from a production of several minutes.[10] Lado's technique seems to reduce the standardization of administration. It also eliminates considering the factor of speech readiness.

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[3] Appendix B

[4] Appendix C

In experimentation with responses to stimuli it was found that several speakers needed a few seconds to warm up to their subjects. When the stimulus was entirely oral with the subject not being permitted to use notes, it was found that many producers tended to run dry after about one minute. For the reasons just given, it was decided to call for one-minute monologues.

To permit the analysis of constancy of production, it was decided to elicit four monologues from each subject. Two of these were in response to oral (O) stimuli and two in response to visual (V) stimuli.

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[5] O. Thornburg, "Earlham's Proficiency Examination in Oral English," English Journal, 26(June, 1937), p. 470.

[6] M. J. Calvet, S. Sauvageot, and A. Diop, L'enseignement du français en Afrique, IV-B. Le français parlé. Enquête au lycée de Thies (Dakar: Centre de linguistique appliquée, 1963), p. 1.

[7] C. J. Dodson, Oral Examinations (Aberystwyth, Wales: Faculty of Education, University College of Wales, 1963), p. 2.

[8] F. B. Agard and H. B. Dunkel, An Investigation of Second-Language Teaching (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1948), p. 57.

[9] A. E. Creore and Victor E. Hanzeli, A Comparative Evaluation of Two Modern Methods for Teaching a Spoken Language (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1960), p. 12.

[10] Robert Lado, Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests (London: Longmans, 1961), p. 245.

Lado and Stabb considered pictures to be the most valid stimuli but recognized that pictures alone did not elicit economically all the language required.[11] The oral stimuli provided the necessary vocabulary and even the sentence structure for the subject endowed with a good enough memory. The subject's monologue could have been in the nature of a verbal recall. However, many subjects chose to comment on the stimulus or to make up an entirely different narration.

The visual stimuli which were left before the eyes of the subject during production saved him the concern about keeping enough ideas in mind to speak for a whole minute. In this respect the visual stimuli differed from the oral stimuli. There is another respect in which visual and oral stimuli differed. When speaking from a picture, a subject was entirely dependent upon his own reservoir of words and structures. He had no proximate linguistic model. The only linguistic direction offered came from the question directed to the subject about the series of illustrations.

In order to determine the possibility of influencing the complexity of language produced, one of the oral stimuli was given a simple structure and the other a complex structure. A complex-structure (C) stimulus is defined as one that contains many adverbial or adjectival modifying words, phrases, or clauses. A simple-structure (S) contains few of these modifying structures

Mialaret and Malandain specify three levels of sentence complexity:[12]

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[11] Lado, 1961, op. cit., p. 243; Martin S. Stabb, "An Experiment in Oral Testing," Modern Language Journal, 39(May, 1955), p. 233.

[12] Mialaret and Malandain, op. cit., pp. 14-22.

A - Short sentence (3 to 7 words) with one verb.

- Longer sentences expressing only one action even with an enumeration.

B - Simple sentence with compound predicate.

- Simple sentence with simple predicate but several modifiers.

C - Expression of a relationship between ideas.

The maximum value given to a sentence in category A is 1; B, 2; and in C, 4.

They use this formula also as a measurement of output crediting A as 1 idea, B as 2, and C as 3.

Even though Loban states that there is more than subordination to language complexity, his own index of complexity consists of the following values:[13] principal clause, 1; subordinate clause, 2; principal clause containing a structure with an infinitive, gerund, or participle, 3; subordinate clause embedded in a subordinate clause, 3.

It is proposed in this study to keep separate the concepts of output and complexity. Predication will be considered as an element of output. Modification and relationship will be considered as elements of complexity.

An Index of Complexity is computed as follows:

$$IC = \frac{(M + 2F + 3S)\ 100}{W}$$

M represents single word adjective or adverbial modifiers with the following exceptions: interjections, articles, demonstratives, possessives, conjunctions, relatives, cardinal and ordinal numbers, ne--pas, or adjectives and adverbs used in the complement slot.

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[13] Loban, op. cit., p. 18.

F represents adjectival or adverbial phrases, absolute phrases, and noun phrases in apposition which do not have a verb head, and not phrases that are in the subject or object slot.

S represents any subordinate clause and phrase having a verbal as a head.

W represents the total number of words spoken in one minute.

The following are the two oral stimuli adapted for the instrument. The structures of modification are underlined and coded in the right margin. The data thus obtained are used to calculate the index of complexity for each stimulus.

1. Simple Structure Oral Stimulus:

Six heures du matin. Pas un souffle d'air. Un des chameaux FFF
lance un cri. Une antilope surgit, se heurte la tête contre un
rocher. A l'horizon il y des signes d'orage. Le sable et la FFF
poussière tourbillonnent. Les canards sauvages poussent des cris. M
Il faut chercher un abri. Au dessus de ma tête je vois les marques FF
de la dernière inondation. Les eaux vont remonter à cette hauteur FM
là. Il n'y a pas un instant à perdre. Les chameaux s'agenouillent. FF
Chacun se perche. Le soleil disparaît. Les éclairs déchirent
l'obscurité. Un coup de tonnerre retentit et d'énormes gouttes FM
commencent à tomber. Nos vêtements collent à notre peau. Une F
fente s'ouvre dans la muraille; nous atteignons une terrasse. Les F
eaux remuent à nos pieds. Les flots font crouler les murailles. F
Enfin un rayon de soleil. L'orage est fini.[14] (147 words) F

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[14] Camille Bauer, Margaret D. Barton, Patricia O'Connor, *Lire, parler, écrire, Teachers Manual* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), p. 140.

$$IC = \frac{(3 \times 0) + (2 \times 16) + (3 \times 1)}{147} \times 100 = 23$$

2. Complex Structure Oral Stimulus:

Les tricheurs représentent un problème pour leurs camarades de F
classe qui se demandent parfois quelle attitude ils doivent FM
adopter vis à vis d'eux. Faut-il les dénoncer? Faut-il jouer leur SFF
jeu? Les dénoncer au professeur, je ne le pense pas. Une classe F
est une petite communauté où l'on doit se sentir solidaire les M
uns des autres. Rapporter et dénoncer démoliraient l'esprit SF
d'équipe et de bonne camaraderie qui doit régner dans ce groupe FFMSF
et créeraient, d'autre part, une lourde et pénible atmosphère FMMM
de suspicion. Le rapporteur risquerait de se faire détester par F
la classe entière. Donc pas de rapportage. Mais on peut par FM
quelques mots ou simplement par une mimique expressive faire FMMFM
savoir au tricheur que l'on n'est pas dupe de son manège. Cela F
peut suffire à le décourager.[15] (136 words)

$$IC = \frac{(3 \times 3) + (2 \times 15) + (1 \times 10)}{136} \times 100 = 36$$

It is interesting to note that during the trial runs and during the testing none of the subjects recognized that these stimuli differed in complexity.

An attempt was also made to devise two visual stimuli that would cause the production of monologues differing in complexity.[16] The first series of pictures has the title, "La journée d'une mère de famille" and consists of a series of pictures depicting likely activities of a housewife. The question asked was, "How does a housewife spend her day?" The pictures were designed to favor an enumeration rather than a discussion of the activities. The other group of pictures depicts problems encountered while camping. The subjects were asked to discuss problems related to camping. It was anticipated that such a discussion would abound in structures of modification.

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[15] Bauer, Barton, and O'Connor, *op. cit.*, p. 188.

[16] Appendix D

The instrument was recorded on tape so that the directions and timing would be uniform for each subject.[17] A plan was set up to rotate the order of presentation of stimuli.[18] Within the limits of mathematical possibility, an attempt was made to have each stimulus presented an equal number of times in the first, second, third, and fourth position of order. The same rotation plan was used for each of the three groups.

Procedure for Obtaining Data

The instrument was administered individually in the language laboratory of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta by the investigator. The subject picked a number from one to ten to select the order in which the stimuli would be presented to him. The master tape was played from the console and the subject first did the practice monologue with microphone and headphones on and then recorded the four monologues called for in the instrument. If the subject complained that he did not understand an oral stimulus, it was played again once. Subjects who still complained that they did not understand or that they did not know what to say were prompted to say anything they could think of even if it had little relation to the topic.

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[17] The recording of the instrument (Appendix B) is on file at the University of Alberta Education Library.

[18] Appendix E

Six of the subjects in the A-2 group were not sure of the word "tricheur" and at least three in B-2 had the same problem. This word had not been a problem for anyone during the trial runs. Many in the non-native groups found comprehension of one or both oral stimuli difficult. One confessed to having taken "orage dans le désert" for "oranges in the dessert". The non-native preferred the visual stimuli.

In the native group one subject found the pictures distracting. Two subjects who had read a description of a storm by St. Exupéry recently found that the similarity between the two descriptions interfered with their production.

Subjects who produced almost nothing in the time alloted for one monologue were encouraged by the examiner before being given the stimulus for the next monologue. Some produced even fewer than ten words in one monologue. Subjects were asked not to discuss the measuring instrument with their friends until all the measuring had been completed, and no information was given out about the specific purposes of the instrument in case they did talk about it

Coding of the Data

All of the monologues were transcribed by the investigator.[19] English words were transcribed but placed within parentheses and not counted. French words used incorrectly, such as "dans le texte" for "in the book", were counted. Words spoken before or after the starting and stopping signals were omitted. Incomplete words were not transcribed but were recorded under the appropriate hesitation category. When an inappropriate word was used it was transcribed in the conventional alphabet rather than in phonetic symbols. In a phrase such as, "Les enfants ne sait pas", sait could just as well have been transcribed as sais. "Les Arabes bavard" for bavardent would have been equally well represented phonetically by "Les Arabes bavares". The following are other examples of an arbitrary choice between homonyms made by the transcriber:"pour les montre," "tout la maison". In a phrase like "des petit (s) insectes" where an improper liaison was made (in this case with the "t" rather than with the "s") a letter was dropped to match the transcription to the production.

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[19] Appendix F. This appendix includes all the transcriptions and their coding. A recording of all the monologues produced by the subjects is on file in the library of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

From the tape, an actual count of vocoids was made. This was a count of the vowels, not the semi-vowels, that were vocally realized.

The following nine types of hesitation phenomena have been identified by Blankenship and Kay,[20] and Maclay and Osgood:[21] (1) non-lexical intrusive sound (includes incomplete words and lengthened final vowels), (2) sentence correction (making a substitution for more than one word), (3) word change, (4) repetition of a word or more, (5) stutter (repetition of part of a word), (6) omission of part of a word, (7) sentence incompletion, (8) tongue slip, and (9) unnatural unfilled pauses. The type of each hesitation was noted by number in the transcription. Where a hesitation could belong to two categories, only one was recorded. Each hesitation was counted only once. An Index of Hesitation (IH) was calculated using the following formula:

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[20] Jane Blankenship and Christian Kay, "Hesitation Phenomena in English Speech: A Study in Distribution," Word, 19 & 20(1963-64), pp. 360-372.

[21] Howard Maclay and Charles E. Osgood, "Hesitation Phenomena in Spontaneous English Speech," Word, 15 & 16(1959-60), pp. 19-44.

$$IH = \frac{\text{Number of Hesitations X 100}}{\text{Number of Words}}$$

Several terms are defined below since they are given a special meaning in the study:

1. Predicates -- Finite or non-finite verb phrase heads that have not been nominalized, adjectivized, or adverbialized but that may be part of a phrase or clause that has these functions.[22] In the following examples the countable predicates are underlined.

    1. . . . désert semble bien arosé.
    2. C'est d'avoir assez d'eau pour permettre . . . .
    3. Il a eu des mirages.
    4. On vient de décrire.
    5. Ca s'avère un succès de donner la responsabilité d'établir . . ..
    6. Il y a des oeufs à faire cuire.
    7. Ils ont tendance à y retourner.
    8. Le vent peut aplanir . . . .
    9. Ils réussissent à survivre.
    10. Il veut marcher.
    11. Il pense avoir fini.

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[22] Albert Valdman, Applied Linguistics, French (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1961), p. 22.

12. Il aura fini de *penser*.

13. Il croit avoir été *volé*.

14. Il finit par *aimer*.

15. Il souhaite pouvoir *unir* . . . .

16. Hâtons-nous de le *dire*.

17. Il pourra *prendre* et *dire* . . . .

18. Il faut aller se *promener*.

19. Il a pu et voulu *comprendre*.

20. C'est à *voir*.

21. Elle aime à *danser*.

22. . . . que vous devez *remplir* pour le *regarder* et l'*affronter*.

23. Il a *fini* en *chantant*.

24. Il a *fini* avant de *chanter*.

25. Chanter *demande* de l'energie.

26. Les officiers ayant *demandé* s'il y *avait* une . . ., ils. . . .

27. Ca *présente* l'intérêt d'*être* . . . .

Words such as *croit avoir été* in number 13 are considered as auxiliaries of the predicate as opposed to the verbs in 23 and 24 that are interpreted as separate predicates.

2. Word-order conflict -- dissimilarity in word-order of English and French near-equivalents. Whenever the order of one of several alternative translations is not in conflict with the French near-equivalent, no conflict is recorded. Dichotomous expressions such as *ne--pas*, *ne--que*, and *ne--jamais* having one word equivalents in English are counted as conflicts.

3. Prepositions and conjunctions include relative pronouns, interrogative

adverbs and interrogative pronouns, au, aux, and des, du when used as contractions rather than as partitives. Au and aux are counted as containing a preposition (à) and a determiner (le or les). Du is just a determiner in "boire du lait" but it is a preposition and determiner in "venir du village".

4. Noun Determiners -- These are words and not phrases or clauses. They include articles, possessives, demonstratives, interrogative adjectives, various adjectives and the article hidden by contractions with prepositions. Pronouns are excluded.
5. Pronouns -- subject, object, emphatic, possessive, demonstrative, and indefinite but not interrogative or relative.

The structures of modification were underlined and identified and so were the noun determiners, the prepositions or conjunctions, the pronouns, the predicates and the word-order errors of conflicts. The total of words in each monologue was obtained and was used in the appropriate formula to obtain an index of complexity and an index of hesitation for each monologue. The VS monologues were scanned for examples of twenty preselected pronunciation problems.

The problems of pronunciation selected are not all phonemic. They have been selected from contrastive studies of French and English by Delattre, Léon, Politzer and Valdman.[23] Among them can be found problems

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[23] Pierre Delattre, Les difficultés phonétiques du français (Middlebury: Ecole française, 1948); Monique Léon, Exercices systématiques de prononciation française, I (Paris: Hachette et Larousse, 1964); Monique Léon, Exercices systématiques de prononciation française, II (Paris: Hachette et Larousse, 1964); Pierre et Monique Léon, Introduction à la phonétique corrective (Paris: Hachette et Larousse 1964); Robert L. Politzer, Teaching French: An Introduction to Applied Linguistics (New York: Ginn and Co., 1960); Albert Valdman, Applied Linguistics, French (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1961).

of stress, rhythm, intonation, linking, syllabification as well as sound-segment production. A deliberate attempt was made to select a wide variety of problems that are recognized as interfering with communication. The list can be found in the appendix.[24]

The Hypotheses

The following list indicates to what subject each hypothesis is related.

HoGC -- structure complexity

HoGV -- rate of output of vocoids

HoGP -- rate of output of predicates

HoGH -- frequency of hesitation

HoCC, HoCV, HoCP, HoCH -- stimuli effect on complexity, output of vocoid, output of predicates, hesitation

HoFE -- frequency of errors by A-2 and B-2

HoFO -- frequency of linguistic occurrences in four grammatical classes

HoP20 -- demonstration of 20 pronunciation problems

HoPC -- relative importance of pronunciation elements in communication

HoPE -- range of pronunciation elements demonstrated by groups differing in proficiency

HoGC - There is no difference in the _structural complexity_ of speech produced by the three _groups_ and judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCC - There is no difference between the _structural complexity_ of speech in the _four components_ considering all of the three groups as one.

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[24] Appendix G

HoGV - There is no difference between the vocoid output of the three groups judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCV - There is no difference between the vocoid output in the four components considering all of the three groups as one.

HoGP - There is no difference between the predicate output of the three groups judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCP - There is no difference between the predicate output in the four components considering all of the three groups as one.

HoGH - There is no difference between the frequency of hesitation of the three groups judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCH - There is no difference between the frequency of hesitation in the four components considering all the three groups as one.

HoFE - There is no difference between advanced and beginning non-native speakers in the frequency of errors in the word-order, and in the use of prepositions and conjunctions, noun determiners, and pronouns in a monologue.

HoFO - There is no difference in the monologues of native speakers between the frequency of occurrence of word-order conflicts, prepositions and conjunctions, noun determiners, and pronouns.

HoP20 - A one-minute monologue is not adequate to demonstrate proficiency in handling selected pronunciation elements.

HoPC - The mastery of selected pronunciation problems is not equally important for communication.

HoPE - There is no difference between the number of pronunciation elements handled by three proficiency groups.

Limitations of the Study

1. The following factors of proficiency are not considered in this study: (a) sentence length, (b) speed of reaction, (c) grammatical correctness, (d) control of syntax, (e) vocabulary, (f) memory-span, (g) accuracy, (h) fluency, (i) speech attitude, (j) continuity, (k) comprehensibility, and (l) pleasantness. No claims are made about the exhaustiveness of this list or about the legitimacy of its components.
2. Innate intelligence, creativity, and linguistic aptitude are controlled only to the extent that the sample consists of subjects who have been successful in at least one university French course. It is assumed that the influence of the non-linguistic factors just named can be randomized out.
3. The subject's first language is avoided completely during the monologue production sessions. According to Sapon, Brooks, Cattell, and Lado there is a danger of "contaminating" proficiency by giving stimuli in another language.[25] Consequently from this study it is

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[25] Stanley M. Sapon, "Report of the Committee on Tests," Reports of the Working Committees, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Oxford, Ohio: Miami University, 1956), p. 35; Nelson Brooks, "Definition of Language Competencies Through Testing," Reports of the Working Committees, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Oxford, Ohio: Miami University, 1959), pp. 54-55; Cattell, op. cit., p. 68; Robert Lado, "English Language Testing: Problems of Validity and Administration," English Language Teaching, 14(1960), pp. 153-160.

not possible to make any claims about the nature of proficiency in a bilingual testing situation.

4. In this study, the findings are not applied to the construction of a test, but the development of tests of oral proficiency has been the main reason for the study.
5. Because the experimental groups are made up of university graduates and undergraduates, the findings may have only limited application in the testing of children or of beginning students of language.
6. Since conversation is not made up only of one-minute monologues, it cannot be claimed that this study provides a description of speech produced in conversation.

CHAPTER III

"Je vis de bonne soupe et non de beau langage."

Molière, Les femmes savantes.

DATA, THEIR ANALYSES, AND RESULTS

The data for the first four major groups of hypotheses dealing with structural complexity, rate of vocoid output, rate of predicate output, and frequency of hesitation are presented in tables like Table II. Column one shows that there are three equal groups each consisting of ten subjects: A-1, A-2, and B-2. These three groups represent one factor in the analyses.

Four observations were made on each subject. These observations consisted of four monologues spoken in response to four stimuli different in nature: (1) oral simple structure (2) oral complex structure (3) visual complex structure (4) visual simple structure. These four observations are listed in a row to the right of the subject. Each of the last four columns, therefore, represents the results of the same observation on the thirty subjects. This dimension represents the second factor of the analyses. The variable in this dimension is the stimuli and the analyses permit a measurement of the differences in the nature of speech produced as responses to the various stimuli.

Two-factor Analysis of Variance with Repeated Measures on One Factor

A two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor is applicable to the hypotheses on the first four major areas of investigation:

TABLE II

INDEX OF COMPLEXITY CLASSIFIED BY SUBJECT AND MONOLOGUE

	Subjects	OS	OC	VC	VS
A-1	1	57	26	37	40
	2	30	43	15	21
	3	24	21	39	36
	4	17	32	28	39
	5	16	17	28	23
	6	41	36	38	33
	7	39	29	45	43
	8	29	29	32	30
	9	50	35	38	55
	10	28	28	32	46
A-2	11	26	17	40	38
	12	30	32	34	31
	13	25	36	37	35
	14	17	27	23	25
	15	21	37	27	35
	16	16	16	34	24
	17	39	27	38	43
	18	28	27	29	35
	19	25	23	28	21
	20	24	23	27	25
B-2	21	22	28	27	23
	22	18	28	18	26
	23	34	6	16	27
	24	16	17	21	24
	25	20	19	20	39
	26	18	25	37	27
	27	24	54	23	29
	28	38	32	29	29
	29	46	27	44	17
	30	15	15	35	9

1. structure complexity
2. rate of vocoid output
3. rate of predicate output
4. frequency of hesitation

Two hypotheses are advanced in relation to each of the areas. The first hypothesis in each area is intended to investigate whether the factor is an aspect of proficiency. The second one is intended to investigate whether the factor of proficiency varies with the nature of the stimuli.

The language of the groups drawn from populations believed to differ in proficiency is compared as to complexity, output, and hesitation to determine whether these are factors of proficiency. In this comparison the four observations on each subject are not considered separately.

Then the language obtained as a result of the four treatments is compared to determine whether variations in stimuli have an effect on complexity, output, and hesitation. In this comparison the thirty subjects are considered as one group.

A two-factor analysis with repeated measures on one factor is considered to be appropriate for the following reasons:[1]

1. It provides a statistical control over individual differences between treatments. Treatment effects for a given subject are measured relative to the average response made by that subject on all treatments. The separation of individual error from treatment effects and experimental error increases the sensitivity of the experiment.

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[1] B. J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962), pp. 105-124; 298-306.

2. Using different subjects under each of the treatment combinations has the advantage of providing statistically independent estimates of treatment effects from all cells in the experiment.
3. By having each subject serve as his own control, it is possible to work with a smaller sample size and still obtain meaningful results.
4. It is possible to spread sequence effects on all the treatment effects by counterbalancing the order of administering the treatments.

The selection of this design is based on the following assumptions:

1. The subjects in each group are a random sample taken from a large population. It was pointed out earlier that drawing subjects from language-teaching methods classes does not, strictly speaking, conform to this assumption.
2. The variance is the same for all treatments since the same subjects are observed under all the treatments.
3. The population covariances are equal.
4. If the population covariances are not equal, the usual F tests gives positively biased results. "The critical value as obtained from an F table tends to be too low relative to a critical value appropriate for an arbitrary variance-covariance matrix."[2] In other words if the homogeneity assumptions are not met, the differences will appear to be more significant than they are.

When the assumptions of homogeneity are not met, an approximate test can be made using the usual F statistic and by dividing the degrees of freedom for the numerator and denominator of F ratios by

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[2] Ibid., p. 123.

(k-1) where k is the number of treatments. This is the maximum correction needed for any amount of heterogeneity and as such gives negatively biased results. Negatively biased results are results that make differences appear less significant than they are.

It was found in this study that dividing the degrees of freedom by (k-1), or 3, did not change the results. Therefore, even though variance-covariance matrices are assumed to be homogeneous in this study, the results would remain unchanged if the assumption did not hold. For this reason, the matrices were not examined for homogeneity.

Structural Complexity

The first of the two hypotheses serves to investigate the difference in structural complexity of language produced by speakers differing in proficiency. The second hypothesis serves to consider the relationship between stimuli and complexity.

HoGC - There is no difference in the structural complexity of speech produced by the three groups and judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCC - There is no difference between the structural complexity of speech in the four components considering all the three groups as one.

The indices of complexity computed from the four monologues produced by each of the thirty subjects are presented in Table II, page 58. Subject 13 was replaced after drawing the samples because he was discovered to be only an auditor in the methods class and, therefore, not to belong properly to the sample.

The results of the analysis of variance appear in Table III. The complexity of speech produced by the three groups differed at the .05 level. Therefore there is a positive relationship between the structural complexity of the language spoken and the oral proficiency of the speaker. A measurement of this aspect of a spoken production is an index of the proficiency of the speaker. As Table III indicates null hypothesis GC is not supported. Structural complexity is a factor of proficiency. The difference between the means of the three groups was submitted to the Newman-Keuls Test to determine whether all the means are significantly different from each other. Only the means of A-1 and B-2 differed from each other at the .05 level, as shown in Table IV.

The results presented in Table III also show that the structural complexity of the four components does not differ significantly. The complexity of the language produced in response to OS, OC, VC and VS stimuli does not change. The structural complexity of the language produced is comething which is very personal and cannot be influenced externally. A complex stimulus does not tend to lead to a complex response. Oral and visual stimuli are equally ineffective in determining the structural complexity of responses. The null hypothesis CC is supported by these results.

The range in the Indices of Complexity of the outputs (6 to 57) is much greater than the range between the Indices of Complexity of the stimuli (23 to 36). This is further evidence of the personal nature of structural complexity.

Since the largest Indices of Complexity seem to be generated from outputs of less than ten words (for example, IC = 57; W = 7), evaluators

TABLE III

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN INDEX OF COMPLEXITY

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F
Bet. groups (A)	2	769.059	*4.410
Sub. within groups	27	174.386	
Bet. monologues (B)	3	93.432	0.929
Interaction (A X B)	6	76.613	0.762
B X sub. within groups	81	100.584	

TABLE IV

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF INDICES OF STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY OF GROUPS

Groups		B-2	A-2	A-1
Means		25.5	28.6	34.2
Differences between means	B-2	—	3.1	*8.7
	A-2			5.6
$S_{\bar{A}} = \sqrt{\frac{174.386}{10 \times 4}} = 2.08$		r =	2	3
p .95(r,27)			2.92	3.53
p .99(r,27)			3.96	4.54
$S_{\bar{A}}$ p .95(r,27)			6.07	7.34
$S_{\bar{A}}$ p .99(r,27)			8.24	9.44

* significant at the .05 level.

of oral proficiency using the Index of Complexity as a metric would be well-advised not to apply it to outputs of less than 25 words. In addition in view of the inconstancy found in the IC's generated by some subjects (a range of 20 is not uncommon) there is a danger inherent in basing judgment on a single output.

The interaction effect between groups and monologues is not a subject of this study. However, the experimental design made its examination possible. The interaction is not found to be significant. It can, therefore, be inferred that the four stimuli had the same effect on all three groups.

Rate of Vocoid Output

There are two hypotheses related to the rate of vocoid output. The first one serves to investigate the difference between the rates of vocoid output of groups differing in proficiency. The second deals with the difference between the rates of vocoid output with different stimuli.

HoGV - There is no difference between the vocoid output of the three groups judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCV - There is no difference between the vocoid output in the four components considering all the three groups as one.

The number of vocoids spoken by each subject in each of four monologues is presented in Table V. The results of the analysis of variance are given in Table VI.

As Table VI shows, there is a great difference between the rates at which speakers differing in proficiency emit vocoids. The difference between the rate of vocoid output of the three proficiency groups is

TABLE V

RATE OF VOCOID OUTPUT CLASSIFIED BY SUBJECTS AND MONOLOGUES

	Subjects	OS	OC	VC	VS
A-1	1	9	126	138	161
	2	81	115	115	91
	3	81	141	111	145
	4	140	166	183	115
	5	95	129	103	125
	6	163	159	145	168
	7	183	225	238	203
	8	160	139	196	171
	9	126	142	162	171
	10	115	168	169	187
A-2	11	82	68	114	110
	12	73	83	83	95
	13	64	87	120	93
	14	69	19	69	87
	15	43	33	64	65
	16	50	67	100	95
	17	99	114	94	102
	18	64	49	65	81
	19	8	63	70	99
	20	72	86	78	84
B-2	21	68	83	98	97
	22	71	92	99	110
	23	71	61	99	100
	24	68	101	117	105
	25	55	103	88	127
	26	59	41	58	75
	27	38	16	77	85
	28	37	59	90	70
	29	65	84	55	82
	30	88	86	82	101

TABLE VI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF VOCOID OUTPUT

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F
Bet. groups (A)	2	58,539	**25.981
Sub. within groups	27	2253	
Bet. monologues (B)	3	6,788	**17.493
Interaction (A X B)	6	514	1.326
B X sub. within groups	81	388	

TABLE VII

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF RATES OF VOCOID OUTPUT OF GROUPS

Groups		A-2	B-2	A-1
Means		76.5	79.0	144.0
Differences between means	A-2	—	2.5	**67.5
	B-2			**65.0
$S_{\bar{A}} = \sqrt{\frac{2253.111}{10 \times 4}} = 7.51$		r =	2	3
p .95(r,27)			2.92	3.53
p .99(r,27)			3.96	4.54
$S_{\bar{A}}$ .95(r,27)			21.92	26.51
$S_{\bar{A}}$ .99(r,27)			29.74	34.10

** significant at the .01 level.

significant at the .01 level. The null hypothesis GV is not supported. It seems then that the rate of vocoid output is an aspect of proficiency.

Some additional inferences about rates of vocoid output can be drawn from Table VII. The mean outputs for groups A-2, B-2, and A-1 are 76.5, 79.0, and 144.0. The outputs of A-2 and B-2 do not differ from each other. There is,however, a great difference between the outputs of the native and the non-native groups. It is significant at the .01 level. It seems that the non-natives are a long way from achieving native rate of output and, if the slight difference between the rates of output of A-2 and B-2 is a reliable indicator, they are making very slow progress in closing that gap.

The rates of vocoid output in response to various stimuli differs at the .01 level. The rate of vocoid output is affected by the stimuli. Stimuli differ in fertility. The null hypothesis CV is not supported.

Table VI also shows that there is no interaction effect between groups and treatments. It seems that various stimuli affect the rate of vocoid output of the three groups in the same way.

Table VIII gives the four mean rates of vocoid output determined from the monologues produced in response to four different stimuli. The means for OS, OC, VC, and VS are 79.9, 96.8, 109.3, and 113.3 respectively. It is apparent from the order that visual stimuli are more fertile than oral stimuli. The differences between VC and VS on one hand and OS on the other are significant at the .01 level. The means of VC and VS differ from the mean of OC at the .05 level.

Either the investigator's attempt to build structure complexity into the visual stimuli was not successful or complexity of the stimuli has no effect on the output. The means of VC and VS do not differ.

The means of the responses to the oral stimuli differ at the.05 level but the complex stimuli are more fertile than the simple stimuli. This,with the observation about the lack of effect of complexity in visual stimuli,suggests that complexity of stimuli really has no bearing on output.

TABLE VIII

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF RATES OF VOCOID OUTPUT BY MONOLOGUES

Monologues		OS	OC	VC	VS
Means		79.9	96.8	109.3	113.3
Differences between means	OS	—	**16.9	**29.4	**33.4
	OC			*12.5	*16.5
	VC				4.0
$S_{\bar{B}} = \sqrt{\frac{388.057}{10 \times 3}} = 3.62$		r =	2	3	4
q .95(r,81)			2.83	3.40	3.74
q .99(r,81)			3.76	4.28	4.60
$S_{\bar{B}}$ q .95(r,81)			10.24	12.31	13.54
$S_{\bar{B}}$ q .99(r,81)			13.61	15.49	16.65

Rate of Predicate Output

One could logically expect vocoid and predicate output to be measurements of the same dimension of speech. However, there is another possibility. If one assumes that predicates represent the substantive part of oral communication and that vocoids are sounds empty of content, then the rate of predicate output may be a better index of proficiency.

There are two hypotheses related to rate of predicate output. The first one serves to investigate whether there is a difference in the rate of predicate output of groups differing in oral proficiency. The second one deals with the difference between the rates of predicate output after stimuli differing in nature.

HoGP - There is no difference between the predicate output of the three groups judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCP - There is no difference between the predicate output in the four components considering all of the three groups as one.

The rates of predicate output in the four monologues spoken by the thirty subjects are shown in Table IX. The results of the analysis of variance given in Table X, show that the rates of output of the groups differ at the .01 level. The null hypothesis GP is not supported by this evidence.

The results of the test for the differences between the group means are presented in Table XI. The means of the predicate outputs for A-2, B-2, and A-1 are 9.1, 9.3, and 16.1 respectively. The rates of predicate output of the two non-native groups do not differ, but the native group differs from the non-native groups at the .01 level.

TABLE IX

RATE OF PREDICATE OUTPUT CLASSIFIED BY SUBJECT AND MONOLOGUE

	Subjects	OS	OC	VC	VS
A-1	1	1	19	15	18
	2	9	13	14	14
	3	11	15	9	15
	4	17	20	17	18
	5	13	17	12	14
	6	16	19	16	16
	7	14	20	21	18
	8	21	23	25	24
	9	15	14	16	16
	10	13	16	22	21
A-2	11	11	12	10	12
	12	9	11	11	10
	13	9	8	15	12
	14	7	3	11	11
	15	5	4	9	5
	16	7	8	10	14
	17	12	15	8	12
	18	8	4	7	16
	19	1	6	10	12
	20	9	5	8	9
B-2	21	10	11	11	11
	22	10	11	12	12
	23	8	11	12	9
	24	6	10	13	9
	25	8	12	12	12
	26	9	5	7	8
	27	2	2	10	11
	28	5	6	10	9
	29	5	7	7	12
	30	10	10	12	17

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PREDICATE OUTPUT

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F
Bet. groups (A)	2	639.808	**24.759
Sub. within groups	7	25.842	
Bet. monologues (B)	3	84.231	**12.072
Interaction (A X B)	6	12.064	1.729
B X sub. within groups	81	6.977	

TABLE XI

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS OF RATES OF PREDICATE OUTPUT BY GROUPS

Groups		A-2	B-2	A-1
Means		9.1	9.3	16.1
Differences between means	A-2	—	0.2	**7.0
	B-2			**6.8
$S_{\bar{X}} = \sqrt{\frac{25.842}{10 X 4}} = .254$		r =	2	3
p .95(r,27)			2.92	3.53
p .99(r,27)			6.07	7.34
$S_{\bar{X}}$ p .95(r,27)			0.74	0.89
$S_{\bar{X}}$ p .99(r,27)			1.01	1.15

The rates of output in response to each stimulus also differ at at the .01 level. It can be concluded that the rates of predicate output differ with different stimuli. The evidence does not support the null hypothesis CP.

An examination of the results reported in Table XII reveals that the monologue means are 9.3, 11.2, 12.4, and 13.6 for OS, OC, VC, and VS respectively. The ranking of the stimuli as to fertility is the same as that obtained from the measurement of vocoid output, the visual stimuli are more fertile than the oral stimuli. There is no discernible pattern in the effect of the complexity of stimuli.

TABLE XII

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN RATES OF PREDICATE OUTPUT BY MONOLOGUES

Monologues		OS	OC	VC	VS
Means		9.3	11.2	12.4	13.6
Differences between means	OS	—	**1.9	**3.1	**4.3
	OC			1.2	**2.4
	VC				1.2
$s_B = \sqrt{\frac{6.977}{10 \times 3}} = .50$		r =	2	3	4
q .95(r,81)			2.83	3.40	3.74
q .99(r,81)			3.76	4.28	4.60
s_B q .95(r,81)			1.41	1.70	1.87
s_B·q .99(r,81)			1.88	2.14	2.30

The means of OC, VC, and VS differ at the .05 level from OS. The mean of VS differs significantly from OC. But while VC differs from OC at the .05 level in comparing vocoid outputs, the two means do not differ in comparing predicate output. Therefore a measurement of the rate of vocoid output is inferred to be the more sensitive to the effect of the stimuli.

In predicate output as in vocoid output and complexity there is no interaction between groups and treatments. It can be inferred that all the stimuli are related in the same way to the three groups.

Frequency of Hesitation

The next two hypotheses deal, first of all, with the difference between the frequency of hesitation of groups differing in proficiency and, secondly, with the difference between the frequency of hesitation in response to different stimuli.

HoGH - There is no difference between the frequency of hesitation of the three groups judged on the basis of all four components of this variable.

HoCH - There is no difference between the frequency of hesitation in the four components considering all the three groups as one.

The Index of Hesitation for each subject in each of four monologues is reported in Table XIII. The results of the analysis of variance for the Index of Hesitation are presented in Table XIV. From these results one can conclude that proficient speakers hesitate less than speakers who are not as proficient. The groups differ at the.01 level as to hesitation. The means of Indices of Hesitation as reported in Table XV are

TABLE XIII

INDEX OF HESITATION SELECTED BY SUBJECT AND MONOLOGUE

	Subjects	OS	OC	VC	VS
A-1	1	57	8	15	4
	2	25	16	10	10
	3	11	12	23	7
	4	2	9	3	5
	5	11	15	13	13
	6	7	3	4	2
	7	14	10	8	7
	8	10	13	8	2
	9	4	8	9	5
	10	17	15	7	6
A-2	11	5	12	8	9
	12	9	12	9	5
	13	29	14	7	14
	14	27	22	20	18
	15	26	33	25	25
	16	29	32	23	22
	17	15	10	21	16
	18	11	21	31	11
	19	50	25	21	10
	20	32	23	28	18
B-2	21	36	29	23	24
	22	19	17	17	16
	23	29	24	21	19
	24	26	14	17	14
	25	27	18	21	13
	26	25	29	23	22
	27	24	31	19	15
	28	39	27	19	22
	29	19	21	30	9
	30	19	18	18	11

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN INDEX OF HESITATION

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F
Bet. groups (A)	2	1333.300	**10.553
Sub. within groups	27	126.348	
Bet. monologues (B)	3	444.989	**9.515
Interaction (A X B)	6	2.922	0.062
B X sub. within groups	81	46.765	

TABLE XV

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF INDICES OF HESITATION BY GROUPS

Groups		A-1	A-2	B-2
Means		10.7	19.4	21.6
Difference between means	A-1		**8.7	**10.9
	A-2			2.2
$S_{\bar{A}} = \sqrt{\frac{126.348}{10 \times 4}} = 1.78$		r =	2	3
p .95(r,27)			2.92	3.53
p .99(r,27)			3.96	4.54
$S_{\bar{A}}$ p .95(r,27)			5.19	6.28
$S_{\bar{A}}$ p .99(r,27)			7.05	8.08

10.7, 19.4, and 21.6 for A-1, A-2, and B-2 respectively. The speech of the non-native groups differs at the .01 level from the speech of the natives as to Index of Hesitation. The null hypothesis GH is not supported. However, the speech of the two non-native groups is the same in hesitation.

There is a difference in the frequency of hesitation after different stimuli. The Index of Hesitation for the monologues differs at the .01 level also. These conclusions lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis CH.

The means of the Indices of Hesitation reported in Table XVI are 12.4, 16.7, 18.0, and 21.8 for the VS, VC, OC, and OS, monologues respectively.

TABLE XVI

NEWMAN-KEULS TEST OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN INDICES OF HESITATION BY MONOLOGUES

Monologues		VS	VC	OC	OS
Means		12.4	16.7	18.0	21.8
Differences between means	VS	___	*4.3	**5.6	**9.4
	VC			1.3	*5.1
	OC				3.8
$S_B = \sqrt{\frac{46.765}{10 \times 3}} = 1.25$		r =	2	3	4
q .95(r,81)			2.83	3.40	3.74
q .99(r,81)			3.76	4.28	4.60
S_B q .95(r,81)			3.54	4.25	4.66
S_B q .99(r,81)			4.70	5.35	5.75

The visual simple stimulus monologues have fewer hesitations than each of the monologues that followed the other stimuli. The VS and VC monologues differ at the .05 level. The VS monologues differ at the .01 level from the monologues obtained in response to oral stimuli.

There does not seem to be any clear demarcation between the frequency of hesitation found in monologues that follow oral and visual stimuli because OC and VC monologues do not differ from each other as to frequency of hesitation. Neither does there seem to be a clear demarcation between the frequency of hesitation in monologues after complex and simple stimuli because OC and OS monologues do not differ from each other.

Nevertheless changes in oral proficiency or in the nature of stimuli are accompanied by changes in the frequency of hesitation. It is sometimes suggested that hesitation is related to physical or emotional factors. While there is no evidence here to contradict this suggestion, differences in the degree of proficiency and in the nature of stimuli are accompanied by differences in the frequency of hesitation.

Relationship of Output and Hesitation

In the previous sections output of vocoids, output of predicates and Index of Hesitation as aspects of proficiency have been considered independently. It is appropriate to present some generalizations related to all three. These generalizations are given in Table XVII.

Ordering the stimuli according to the mean rate of vocoid output, rate of predicate output, and Index of Hesitation reveals that the order of the means is the same for the two measurements of output. However, the order of means of Index of Hesitation is exactly opposite to the means of output. Output and hesitation have a high negative relationship to each other. A count of vocoids is a better discriminator of rates of output than a count of predicates because the vocoid count shows a significant difference between VC and OC while the predicate count does not. Visual stimuli produce more output and fewer hesitations. Differences in the Index of Hesitation accompany differences in the nature of the visual stimuli but not differences in the nature of the oral stimuli. The opposite is true for the rates of output. It seems also from these data that with fertile stimuli the Index of Hesitation is the more discriminating metric and that with arid stimuli rate of output is more discriminating.

TABLE XVII

ORDER OF STIMULI ACCORDING TO CERTAIN SELECTED FACTORS OF PROFICIENCY

Means	High to Low
Vocoid output	VS = VC ≠ OC ≠ ≠ OS
Predicate output	VS = VC = OC ≠ ≠ OS
Index of hesitation	OS = OC = VC ≠ VS

Legend for Table XVII

= non-significant difference

≠ or =, = significant difference at the .05 level

≠ ≠ significant difference at the .01 level

Frequency of Errors by the Advanced and Beginning Non-Natives

The next hypothesis is related to the frequency of errors made by advanced and beginning non-native learners of French. The purpose of this investigation is to find out whether A-2 and B-2 can be differentiated by a count of errors in word-order, prepositions and conjunctions, determiners, and pronouns. The number of errors made by each subject in each of the four categories is shown in Table XVIII.

HoFE - There is no difference between advanced and beginning non-native speakers in the frequency of errors in word-order and in the use of prepositions and conjunctions, noun determiners, and pronouns in a monologue.

It can be seen from Table XVIII that several subjects made mistakes in only one or two of the four areas. Only one mistake in word-order is recorded. These observations may lead one to conclude that a count of errors is not a good metric for comparing the oral proficiency of speakers at this stage of development.

The analysis of variance results presented in Table XIX show that groups A-2 and B-2 do not differ in the frequency of errors they make in any of the four areas. The null hypothesis is confirmed. These findings, coupled with those obtained on complexity, output of vocoids and predicates, and, lastly, hesitation suggest that if the aspects measured are indeed factors of oral proficiency, the four hour a week exposure to university language instruction that the subjects in A-2 had for a year in addition to the instruction that the subjects in B-2 had, has not improved their oral proficiency in the dimensions just named.

TABLE XVIII

FREQUENCY OF ERRORS IN WORD-ORDER, PREPOSITION-CONJUNCTION, DETERMINERS, AND PRONOUNS IN MONOLOGUES SPOKEN BY A-2 AND B-2 AFTER A VS STIMULUS

		WOE	PCE	Det E	Pro E
A-2	11	0	2	2	0
	12	0	2	2	1
	13	1	2	3	4
	14	0	0	0	0
	15	0	0	0	1
	16	0	0	1	0
	17	0	1	0	0
	18	0	0	0	1
	19	0	6	0	0
	20	0	1	0	0
B-2	21	0	0	0	0
	22	0	0	1	2
	23	0	2	0	0
	24	0	0	4	3
	25	0	0	2	1
	26	0	1	0	0
	27	0	1	1	1
	28	0	1	3	0
	29	0	3	2	2
	30	0	1	2	1

TABLE XIX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE IN FREQUENCY OF ERRORS IN WORD-ORDER, PREPOSITIONS-CONJUNCTIONS, DETERMINERS, AND PRONOUNS IN MONOLOGUES SPOKEN BY A-2 AND B-2 AFTER A VS STIMULUS

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F
Bet. groups (A)	1	0.200	0.104
Sub. within groups	18	1.922	

Relative Frequencies of Grammatical Classes

This hypothesis raises the question of whether four grammatical classes, arbitrarily defined and selected, are of equal importance in communication. Would a lack of mastery of any of these areas result in an equal lack of proficiency? It should be recalled that word-order conflicts are defined from bilingual contrast.

HoFO - There is no difference in the monologues of native speakers between the frequency of occurrence of word-order conflicts, prepositions and conjunctions, noun determiners, and pronouns.

The frequencies of occurrence of word-order conflict, pronouns, determiners, and prepositions and conjunctions in A-1 monologues in response to VS stimuli are given in Table XX. These four classes differ greatly in importance if frequency of occurrence in native speech is a valid indication. The frequencies of word-order conflict, pronouns, determiners, and prepositions and conjunctions are related to each other in a ratio of 1 : 4 : 7 : 8 respectively. The null hypothesis FO is not confirmed.

TABLE XX

FREQUENCY OF WORD-ORDER CONFLICTS, PRONOUNS, DETERMINERS, AND PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS IN A-1 VS MONOLOGUES

Subjects	WOC	Pron	Det	P & C
1	1	13	25	27
2	3	14	12	11
3	2	10	23	28
4	1	12	33	19
5	2	12	20	16
6	1	20	25	24
7	9	11	18	46
8	4	19	21	27
9	8	12	20	36
10	1	15	31	28
Totals	32	138	228	262
Ratio	1	4	7	8

If frequency of occurrence of a linguistic element or category is an index of its importance to communication, then realistic evaluation of oral proficiency should not give equal weight to these four areas.

Demonstration of Pronunciation Skill in "Free" Production

A common device used in pronunciation tests is to direct the subject to produce certain utterances chosen because they contain selected problem sounds, the production of which the examiner wants to evaluate. Because there are testing situations where free speech is also desirable, it would be convenient if pronunciation could be rated from the free rather than the controlled production. This investigation includes an attempt to determine whether one can find the ability to use twenty preselected pronunciation elements demonstrated in a one-minute monologue. The elements are determined from English-French contrastive analysis. They therefore exist independently of the proficiency of the speaker.

The next hypothesis serves to investigate the adequacy of one-minute monologues to demonstrate mastery of pronunciation.

HoP20 - A one-minute monologue is not adequate to demonstrate proficiency in using selected pronunciation elements.

The X's in Table XXI show which problems have not been demonstrated by a given subject. Demonstration may have been successful or unsuccessful. The totals in the SDP row represent the number of subjects out of thirty who have demonstrated each problem.

Table XXI shows that seven out of twenty pronunciation problems are demonstrated in every monologue. The seven that have a high frequency at least in this context are the following:

TABLE XXI

DEMONSTRATION OF PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS BY SUBJECTS IN VS MONOLOGUES

S	*	2	3	7	8	9	11	12	14	16	17	18	19	20	TPD	MEAN
1			X					X		X				X	16	
2			X					X		X				X	16	
3			X				X	X		X				X	15	
4			X					X		X				X	16	
5			X		X		X	X		X				X	14	A-1
6			X				X	X		X				X	15	15.0
7			X	X			X	X	X	X				X	13	
8			X					X		X				X	16	
9			X				X	X	X	X				X	14	
10			X	X				X		X				X	15	
11			X				X	X		X					16	
12			X		X		X	X		X		X		X	13	
13			X					X	X	X					16	
14			X				X	X		X					16	
15			X				X	X		X		X		X	14	A-2
16			X				X	X		X			X	X	14	14.4
17			X		X	X	X	X		X				X	13	
18			X		X			X		X		X		X	14	
19			X					X		X		X		X	15	
20			X	X			X	X		X	X			X	13	
21			X	X				X		X				X	15	
22			X					X		X				X	16	
23			X			X		X		X				X	15	
24			X		X		X	X		X	X		X	X	12	
25			X				X	X		X				X	15	B-2
26			X				X	X		X		X		X	14	13.9
27		X	X		X		X	X		X	X			X	12	
28			X				X	X	X	X		X		X	13	
29		X	X		X		X	X		X	X			X	12	
30			X					X		X	X			X	15	
SDP		28	0	26	23	28	12	0	26	0	25	24	28	3		

Legend for Table XXII

* - problems 1, 4, 5, 6, 10, 13, 15 were demonstrated by all 30 subjects
X - pronunciation problem not demonstrated in the monologue
S - subjects
TPD - total of problems demonstrated by the subject
SDP - number of subjects who have demonstrated the problem
Refer to Appendix G for the numbered list of pronunciation problems

1. diphthongization of /i/ or /e/ in a final unchecked position--*dit*.
2. giving / / quality to a vowel in the position of an unstressed vowel in English--*support*.
3. intercalating of nasalized consonants--*vend*.
4. substituting /Ē/ for /ā/--*cent*.
5. producing a non-acceptable variety of /r/.
6. aspirating an initial /p, t, k/ .
7. sounding a normally silent final consonant.

The pronunciation problems that do not occur once are these three:

1. producing /œ̇ / before /j/--*feuille*.
2. producing /z + j/ sequences--*les yeux*.
3. realizing /œ / before *h* aspiré--*autre hache*.

In addition the intervocalic /z/ for /s/ is demonstrated only twelve times and the forbidden liaison after a singular noun, only three times. The other eight problems are demonstrated at least twenty-three times. The numbers appearing in parentheses in the list which follows represent the number of demonstrations.

1. diphthongization of /u/ or /o/ in a final unchecked syllable (28)--*boue*.
2. /w/ for /y/ (26)--*juin*.
3. /oj/ for /wa/ (23)--*moi*.
4. /l/ for /j/ (28)--*fille*.
5. /h/ for *h* aspiré or muet (26)--*homme*.
6. closed syllables (25)--*Il est ouvert*.
7. carry-over of English stress (24)--*appartement*.
8. high points of succeeding phrases in the ascending part of the statement each higher than the previous one (28).

The null hypothesis P20 is confirmed. The relative importance of a pronunciation element is not only a phonemic, non-phonemic distinction. On the basis of frequency not all phonemes are equally important. The difficulty of producing a given element depends also on its distribution. Subjects that can produce /œ̃/ and /z/ may not do so in liaison. The tendency of speakers of English to replace /s/ by /z/, for example, is not common to all distributions of /s/. Specifying a pronunciation element as to identity and distribution reduces its frequency of occurrence so much that an evaluator cannot normally expect to find it in a one-minute monologue.

Equality in Importance of Pronunciation Elements

HoPC - The mastery of selected pronunciation problems is not equally important for communication.

The null hypothesis PC is confirmed also. It is obvious from Table XXI that the frequency of encounter of each pronunciation problem is far from being equal.

In the early stages of language learning if it is sufficient to be able to handle the high frequency pronunciation problems, then a monologue is an adequate test of pronunciation provided that the subject has progressed far enough in language mastery to be able to produce an adequate monologue. This type of test is, however, not likely to be useful as a diagnostic instrument since by definition a diagnostic test is concerned with very specific problems and a wide range of them.

In the advanced stages of proficiency development there is a need to test low frequency problems. Testing of pronunciation requires, at least in some areas, closely controlled production.

Relative Frequency of Pronunciation Elements

This hypothesis serves to investigate whether more proficient speakers attempt or use a wider variety of pronunciation elements than the less proficient.

HoPE - There is no difference between the number of pronunciation elements used by three proficiency groups.

The greatest difference between means is between A-1 and B-2. By means of a t-test for independent samples it is found that the difference between the means of A-1 and B-2 is not significant.[3] $s^2 = 1.71$ and $t = 1.86$. For significance at the .05 level with 18 degrees of freedom a t value of 2.101 would have been required. Since the t-test between the most widely separated pair of means does not reveal a significant difference, none of the means is significantly different from another.

Hypothesis PE is confirmed. In other words the theory that language learners avoid language that contains pronunciation problems for them is not supported by this investigation. Some other justification is needed for the inclusion of questions in a test requiring a subject to demonstrate his ability to deal with a particular pronunciation problem.

Conclusion

The thirteen hypotheses originally listed in chapter II were tested in this chapter. The first eight were used to consider the status of structural complexity, rates of output and frequency of hesitation in oral proficiency. By comparing the speech of three groups assumed to differ in oral French proficiency it was found that groups which differ in oral proficiency also differ in their structural complexity, rates of output and frequency of hesitation.

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[3] George Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (new York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), pp. 167-168.

The same three aspects of proficiency were measured in response to four different stimuli. It was found that structural complexity does not vary with the stimuli but that rates of output and frequency of hesitation do.

The other five hypotheses tested are more closely related to the evaluation of oral proficiency. Investigations related to these revealed that the non-native groups could not be distinguished by the number of mistakes they made in four grammatical classes. They also revealed that on the basis of frequency of occurrence these four classes are not equally important.

The investigation also revealed that a one-minute monologue was not adequate for rating pronunciation of low frequency items because there was little likelihood of their being demonstrated. The study revealed too that natives do not demonstrate a wider range of pronunciation elements than non-natives. Finally it was found that pronunciation elements like grammatical elements are not all equally important because they differ in frequency of occurrence.

The next chapter presents summaries of the research and of the findings. The findings, the experience gained in the study, and the information gained from the survey of the literature related to oral proficiency and its evaluation are used as a basis for some conclusions about the nature of oral proficiency and about methods of evaluating it.

CHAPTER IV

"O cervelle indocile!
Faut-il qu'avec les soins qu'on prend incessamment
On ne te puisse apprendre à parler congrûment!"
Molière, Les femmes savantes

I. SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

This study has compared the speech of three groups of ten university students who were assumed to differ in oral French proficiency. The group assumed to be the least proficient was composed of *native* speakers of *English* who had completed only *one* university *French course*. The second most proficient group was composed of *native* speakers of *English* who had completed at least *two* university *French courses*. The most proficient group consisted of *native* speakers of *French* who had completed at least *two* university French courses.

In order to elicit four one-minute samples the subjects were exposed to four especially prepared stimuli. Two of these were one-minute monologues and two were series of black and white pictures. One of the *oral stimuli* contained few structures of modification and the other contained many; they differed in *complexity*. An attempt was made to develop in the two *visual stimuli* a difference that would elicit responses differing in complexity.

It was hypothesized that the three *groups* would produce language which did not differ in (a) structural complexity (b) rate of vocoid output, (c) rate of predicate output, and (d) frequency of hesitation.

Complexity and hesitation were compared on the basis of an index which related a count of the occurrences with the output in a given production.

It was also hypothesized that the four different stimuli would have no relation to complexity, output, and hesitation.

A two-way analysis of variance with repeated measurements on one factor was used. The repeated measurements were the monologues produced in response to the four different stimuli. The significance of the difference between the individual group and monologue means was tested using the Newman-Keuls Test.

With an analysis of variance, a comparison was made of the frequency of errors made by the two non-native groups in the following areas:

1. Word-order conflict.
2. Prepositions and conjunctions.
3. Noun determiners.
4. Pronouns.

The relative frequency of occurrences in the four areas just named was also compared in the speech of natives.

From English-French contrastive analysis twenty pronunciation problems were selected. One monologue was analyzed to determine if the three groups used all of these twenty elements or if one group used more of them than the other groups did. This investigation was aimed at determining whether less proficient speakers have a greater tendency to avoid some pronunciation elements and whether a monologue could be expected to provide an examiner with examples of production of the pronunciation elements that he wants to evaluate.

The relative frequency of these pronunciation elements was also compared as a guide to their relative importance.

II. SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

1. The evidence presented indicates that complexity is a factor of oral proficiency. The speech of native speakers of French has a higher Index of Complexity than the speech of those learning French as a second language at the beginning or advanced stages.
2. The complexity of language output is not found to be influenced by the nature of the stimuli: it is invariably associated with the level of oral proficiency attained by the speaker irrespective of the stimuli being oral or visual, simple or complex.
3. The rate of output of vocoids and predicates is found to be a factor of oral proficiency. Native-speakers of French emit in a given interval a much greater volume of predicates and vocoids than non-natives unless the non-natives have had considerably more experience in French than the population from which this sample was drawn.
4. The rate of output of vocoids and predicates seems to depend to a large extent on the nature of the stimuli. Visual stimuli appear to be more fertile than oral stimuli; visual simple stimuli, more fertile than visual complex stimuli.
5. A count of vocoids seems to be a better discriminator of rates of output than a count of predicates.
6. Hesitation is a negative factor in proficiency. Non-native speakers of French hesitate much more than native speakers of French. The degree of hesitation is determined at least in part by a speaker's proficiency and not just by other factors, such as psychological

characteristics like self-confidence.

7. The amount of hesitation is related to the nature of the stimuli. More hesitation is associated with oral stimuli than with visual stimuli. These findings are equally true for native and non-native speech.
8. Hesitation seems to be affected more by differences in the nature of visual stimuli than by differences in the nature of oral stimuli. The reverse is found to be true about output. It seems to be affected more by differences in the nature of oral stimuli than by differences in the nature of visual stimuli.
9. With fertile stimuli, the Index of Hesitation is the more discriminating metric; with arid stimuli the rate of output is the more discriminating metric.
10. The differential effect of various stimuli is the same on all levels of oral proficiency.
11. The oral proficiency of the advanced non-native learners of French is not found to be superior to that of the beginning non-native learners of French.
12. None of the variables, namely, (a) count of errors in word-order, (b) usage of prepositions and conjunctions, (c) usage of determiners, or (d) usage of pronouns seems to distinguish the advanced and beginning non-native learners of French in regard to oral proficiency.
13. The frequencies of occurrence of interlanguage word-order conflict, pronouns, determiners, and prepositions and conjunctions in native oral French are related to each other in a ratio of 1 : 4 : 7 : 8 respectively.

15. Non-native speakers of French, advanced or beginning, use as great a variety of pronunciation elements as native speakers during a one-minute monologue. These elements are selected theoretically by bilingual contrasts. They may not be problems for non-native speakers and surely are not for native speakers.

III. CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE NATURE OF ORAL PROFICIENCY

1. The fact that the rate of output of native speakers differs from that of non-native speakers raises the question of whether or not there is a minimum rate of output acceptable to native-speakers. Marty claims that it is 150 syllables per minute.[1] It is not known in what precise meaning Marty uses the word "syllable" or under what conditions he would make the "syllable" count. The presence of the mute e in French makes various definitions of syllable possible. Rate of output would be increased; for example, if subjects were told to speak as fast as they can. But if one can assume that vocoids and syllables are roughly equivalent, then according to Table VI, twenty-two of the forty monologues spoken by the native-speaker sample were produced at a rate below the minimum acceptable to native-speakers. The average vocoid output on four monologues is less than 150 per minute for five out of the ten native-speakers. The highest rate of output by a non-native is 127 vocoids per minute.

The data resulting from this study suggest that an average of 100 vocoids per minute could serve as a limit to distinguish native from non-native speakers if the output is obtained and counted according to the method used in this study and if it can be assumed that the speech of the "native speakers" in this study is really of native quality. The highest average output from a non-native speaker was 102 vocoids per minute.

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[1] Fernand Marty, Programming a Basic Foreign Language Course: Prospects for Self-Instruction (Roanoke, Va.: Audio-visual Publications, 1962), p. 3.

Marty also suggests that a minimum acceptable rate of audio-comprehension is 200 syllables per minute.[2] Only three out of the forty monologues spoken by the native-speakers exceed a rate of 200 vocoids per minute and the highest rate is 238 vocoids per minute. The apparent discrepancy between Marty's findings and those of the investigator is more than can be explained by mute vowels. One must possibly look for an explanation in the conditions under which the measurement was made.

2. Oral proficiency is developed largely by practice. Contact with a language through reading, writing, and even listening contributes little to the development of oral proficiency. The advanced non-native group was composed of university students who had completed, at least, one 300-level French course; that is to say, a second year course. Many students in the sample had had more than the minimum. The beginners non-native group was made up of students who had completed no more than a 200-level course; that is to say, a first-year course. The subjects of the two groups differed as to training by at least one French course. In most cases they differed by more than

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[2] _Ibid._, p. 3.

that.

The advanced group should have had the advantage of higher motivation since they were closer to becoming fully-fledged teachers of French. Some were back at university after having taught French at the high school level. Still, on the factors measured, the advanced non-native speakers of French were no more proficient than the beginners.

One is led to conclude that everything possible should be done throughout students' university years to give them the oral practice that will help them develop greater oral proficiency. Prospective teachers of French whose oral proficiency is far from being equal to that of native speakers should be given every opportunity during their years of teacher education and thereafter to continue to develop their oral proficiency. Formal language instruction could be supplemented with mandatory periods of study in a French-speaking environment. The language teacher needs to be orally proficient. The educational system that hopes to develop oral proficiency in students by using teachers who are not orally proficient themselves can expect only limited success.

A second explanation possible is that the recent lengthening of the language sequence and the introduction of language laboratories in high school is reflected in the superior proficiency of the B-2 group. Subjects in the A-2 group may have left high school too soon to benefit from these more favorable conditions.

A third explanation possible is that complexity, output, and hesitation are factors of oral proficiency that develop rapidly in the early stages of language acquisition and may again develop in an advanced stage of language acquisition. Between these two stages there may be a plateau in the development of complexity, output and hesitation while development accelerates in other aspects of oral proficiency.

3. Children of French-speaking parents living in an English-speaking environment tend not to acquire a native proficiency. In the native-speaker sample of ten, four had spent an important part of their lives in a predominantly French speaking area. Twenty-seven out of thirty seven who completed the questionnaire were, according to their personal evaluation, more proficient in English.

The language which the members of the sample may have been able to control fairly well in writing situations was often nonstandard in the spontaneous production situation. This speech was non-standard in the sense that an educated native speaker living in a predominantly French area would not accept it as "correct". Native-speakers do not always speak in "correct" well-formed sentences. They would describe many of their own utterances as ungrammatical. However, some of the deviances found followed a pattern. There were deviations in pronunciation such as the following:

(a) va à /z/ un Camp.

(b) trop /z/ agréable.

(c) /fatsike/ for _fatigué_.

(d) son chameau n'en peut _pu_.

There were uninhibited lexical borrowings such as these:

(a) le père part pour *l'office*.

(b) il *vente*.

(c) de le *ridiculer*.

(d) peut-être seulement que des *hot-dogs* et du *hamburger*.

(e) c'est bien le *fun*.

And these were no more frequent than the syntactical entanglements, calques, vocabulary problems of the types exemplified here:

(a) peut-être *en* cette façon.
partent tous *en* temps.

(b) *aider* for *s'entreaider*.
couverte for *couverture*.
pardessus for *audessus*, *sur*

(c) un des problèmes les plus *difficiles à s'adapter* (hard to get used to).

(d) seulement *que* les effets *que* vous avez exceptionellement de besoin . . .
espérant *que* peut-être *qu*'il va pleuvoir.
il faut qu'il y ait une atmosphere . . . où *que* l'on aide un à l'autre.

It is the nature of oral proficiency that the speaker's linguistic inadequacy is always exposed. While the native-speakers possess a proficiency that is significantly superior to that of the non-natives, it is likely that a sample drawn in a unilingual area would have displayed greater proficiency in the areas measured.

If one assumes that some subjects in the native sample did not quite possess native proficiency, none of the conclusions of this study are negated. With a native group of higher proficiency, the differences between natives and non-natives would only have been greater.

These observations all lead to the following conclusion: If the development of oral proficiency is to be an important objective of language teaching, a concerted and amplified effort must take place to develop this facility in prospective teachers.

4. The monologues spoken after listening to another monologue on the same topic and with complete freedom given to the speaker to repeat exactly the same content in the same form can be considered as a test of ability to recall language just heard rather than as a test of ability to improvise or compose orally. It could be called parrotting.

> What qualifies one as a fluent speaker is not the ability to imitate previously heard sentences but rather the ability to produce and understand sentences never before encountered. The striking fact about the use of language is the absence of repetition--almost every sentence uttered is uttered for the first time.[3]

There is, however, little evidence that parrotting does take place under the conditions that were created. It seems that parrotting would require more exposure to the stimulus to permit memorization. From a single exposure to a type of speech, one is not influenced greatly to use the type of language structures heard. The complexity of language spoken remains highly personal. The speaker remembers the ideas heard with much more ease than he remembers the language structures.

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[3] Jerrold J. Katz and Jerry A. Fodor, "The Structure of a Semantic Theory," The Structure of Language, Katz and Fodor, editors (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Inc., 1964), pp. 481-482.

5. The fear that oral proficiency is largely a reflection of intelligence may not be justified. It seems that by providing ideas to avoid taxing the intelligence and the memory of the speaker that it is possible to observe the normal proficiency of the speaker. It is obvious that the speaker who has nothing to say will not manifest any proficiency but the converse is not necessarily true. Given ideas to express, not everyone will express them with equal facility. Oral proficiency can then be isolated for observation.

6. The responses to the stimuli made by the native and non-native speakers differed in kind. The native-speaker was inclined to comment on the stimuli. A common reaction to the description of a rainstorm in the desert was to comment on the unusualness of such an event. Faced with a series of pictures describing the full day of the housewife, he commented that it was debatable whether housewives led a hard life.

   The non-native was more likely to repeat the ideas just heard without criticizing them. Failing that, he was more likely to take an absolutely unrelated subject and ignore the subject completely. For example, the stimulus about cheaters in the classroom brought forth a discussion about school friendships, and the depiction of a storm in the desert brought forth a description of dawn in an African country. Others who did not understand key words in a stimulus (for example, the word tricheur) were able to weave an interesting web using this word without betraying completely their lack of understanding of its meaning.

The more proficient speaker, therefore, shows more flexibility and adaptability in his thinking in response to a stimulus. This may be a factor of proficiency that bears further investigation.

7. Why is it that oral stimuli cause more hesitation than visual stimuli? And why is it that visual stimuli are more fertile than oral stimuli? Cattell almost a century ago concluded that linguistic reaction to a written word was faster than reaction to a picture.[4] Might not one expect that reaction to a spoken word would be even faster than reaction to a written word?

Some differences between the experimental conditions created by Cattell and those in this study should be noted. Cattell's experiment called for isolated word response, while the investigator in this study called for a response in integrated language. In Cattell's experiment the written or visual stimulus was the cue for an immediate response. In this study the subject was given one minute to interpret the visuals before beginning to speak. The visuals were left before him so that the memory burden was almost non-existent. On the other hand, the one-minute interval between the oral stimulus and the response was time for forgetting as well as for planning.

Another possibility is that there is a linguistic conflict between the linguistic form of the stimulus and the preferred style of the speaker. This conflict results in hesitation or low production by the speaker. On the other hand the visuals may suggest ideas without setting up linguistic interference.

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[4] J. Cattell, "Experiments on the Association of Ideas," Mind 12(1887), p. 68.

IV. CONCLUSIONS ABOUT EVALUATION OF ORAL PROFICIENCY

1. Speech contains more vocoids than words and more words than predicates. The correlation among the output of these three elements is very high. Still a count of vocoids is a better discriminator of output than a count of predicates. Since predicates are much easier to count than vocoids and since differences on this factor are highly significant in either case, a count of predicates is more than adequate except where fine discrimination is desired.
2. Since rate of output is the better discriminator with an arid stimulus and frequency of hesitation is the better discriminator with a fertile stimulus, there is reason to believe that rate of output would be a suitable metric in the evaluation of beginners and frequency of hesitation, in the evaluation of advanced speakers.
3. Because stimuli differ markedly in fertility, stimuli used in tests should be matched in this respect. Fertility of a stimulus should be determined empirically for each population.
4. Since the effectiveness of an oral stimulus depends upon its being understood by the speaker, and since even experienced teachers are poor judges of the comprehension problems found in a stimulus, the comprehensibility of a stimulus to be used in a test needs to be determined empirically.
5. Because it is difficult to match stimuli as to their effect on response, it is important that subjects being compared by means of an

oral test respond to the same stimuli. Facilities permitting the administration of tests to large groups in one sitting are then desirable for test security reasons.

In this respect, language laboratories can be very useful.[5] If they are not designed with playback facilities for every student position, they should have at least recording facilities for every position. Large systems not willing to provide such elaborate facilities in every school could equip one school to which the students could be transported. Another possibility is portable recording equipment that could be connected to existing laboratory facilities in several of the schools.

6. The reliability of the results of oral examinations depends upon standard administration procedures. Where any part of the stimuli is to be presented orally, it would seem that uniformity can be guaranteed only by recording the stimuli for presentation.

7. Skills may be tested synthetically or analytically. In synthetic testing, the subject is called upon to use his skill and he is judged on an overall subjective impression of his performance. In analytical testing the skill is broken down into as many elements as possible each of which may be judged on a binary scale as to acceptability of performance.

Mackey suggests that synthetic evaluation has the following weaknesses:[6]

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[5] Robert R. Roy, "A Descriptive Study of Language Laboratories and of their Use in the Teaching of French as a Second Language in Manitoba Secondary Schools" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Manitoba, 1965), p. 75.

[6] William F. Mackey, Language Teaching Analysis (London: Longmans, Green & Co. Ltd., 1965), pp. 406-407.

(a) The subject reveals only what he wishes to reveal.

(b) Synthetic evaluation does not adequately sample range of vocabulary and structures controlled.

(c) This technique makes it easier for a subject to plug in a prepared composition.

(d) Scoring is inaccurate, time-consuming, subjective, and difficult.

(e) Such tests are of limited diagnostic value.

He suggests on the other hand that a weakness of analytic tests is that they do not require the learner to use "the entire complex system of habits simultaneously". But is there another weakness? Do testers know enough about the nature of proficiency to make a complete inventory of its elements? If they do not, is it possible that the incompleteness of analytic tests accounts for the permanence of synthetic tests in spite of their inadequacies? As test constructors obtain more and more information about the specific elements to be tested, the need for the synthetic tests should decrease.

Tests which are designed to cause a subject to use a series of specific lexical, morphological, or phonological items are not the only type of analytical tests. Tests which measure factors of proficiency such as language complexity, rate of output, or frequency of hesitation from a monologue produced under controlled conditions are also analytical. If analytical tests are to give a complete evaluation of oral proficiency, they have to include production in which the subject is required to use several habits simultaneously and to select the habits that are pertinent in a given situation. From such a production the evaluator selects the very specific elements that he is testing and measures them against an established quantitative standard. Continued research is needed to identify these elements.

Tests of oral proficiency that call only for the production of isolated words, phrases or even sentences are incomplete. Tests of oral proficiency that closely determine in every part of the test the structures and vocabulary to be used are also incomplete. Part of a complete test of oral production calls upon a subject to produce monologues and possibly dialogues. The language produced in such situations is rated for very specific factors that are not likely to be demonstrated otherwise.

For reasons of economy of administration time it may be entirely possible to rate the use of certain high frequency phonological, morphological, or lexical items from these same productions. But because many language elements are not frequent or constant in usage, they have to be tested in items designed to force their use.

Tests of oral proficiency then need to include some pointed and specific items that elicit only one acceptable answer and other types of items where the speaker is given some linguistic freedom to determine how successful he is in dealing with a linguistic situation where he has the freedom. Restrictions set by directions or stimuli have a negative effect on fluency. The "free" production sections are analyzed for very specific qualities and are not rated subjectively on some arbitrarily selected scale used to evaluate some vague quality. It seems that subjective scales used to rate broad qualities such as intelligibility and naturalness should be replaced by ratings of more specific elements. The subjective categories have to be broken down into specific components. At the advanced stages of language learning, tests should sample as great a variety of language elements as possible. Beginners should be tested on the most frequent elements without consideration of their supposed relative difficulty. If oral proficiency scores are to have a meaning that could be verified in real-life situations, they should reflect particularly the control of the high frequency elements. If economy dictates that there be only one or two questions on any element, the questions based on the high frequency elements should be given a heavier weighting.

8. One minute seems to be an appropriate length for a monologue production if only linguistic aspects are under investigation. Shorter productions are insufficient and longer productions place a higher premium on non-linguistic factors. But low frequency elements of language cannot be rated in free monologues.

9. Visual stimuli are to be preferred to oral stimuli where both are possible. Because visual stimuli are more fertile than oral stimuli, they should result in a better display of proficiency.

10. It is likely that there is an aspect of oral proficiency manifested in conversation that is not demonstrated in monologue production. Conversation often calls for quick reaction and frequent shifting of direction. The characteristics that are demonstrated only in conversation need to be identified and tested. But that is not to say that they will necessarily have to be tested in a conversation.

11. In test items that control strictly the subject's responses, economy of scoring time is likely the only consideration in deciding whether

to count wrong answers or right answers. However, in free responses it seems that the proficient can be singled out better by counting instances of inappropriate performance. It seems that the subject lacking in proficiency excels at not performing rather than at performing inappropriately.

12. One of the dangers of using monologues to test certain aspects of oral proficiency is that a subject may be able to use a few prepared compositions to speak on a great variety of subjects. Although being able to prepare a few topics well and to link them in speech with a topic proposed does indicate a certain degree of proficiency, it would seem wise to demand that monologue response be definitely within set bounds.

The oral test is not the most efficient way to sample range of vocabulary. A written test could be much more complete and economical of administration and scoring time. Therefore the need to test vocabulary should not dictate a narrow specification of the areas of performance in monologues. It may be that giving a subject considerable freedom as to what he says may only make it possible for him to display his proficiency at its best. It seems that the best test of oral proficiency is one that favors production and not one that places obstacles in its path.

13. The good oral test states in precise terms what is to be measured and by what metric. Scorers need to be trained for the job. It is likely that educated native-speakers can be easily trained to do this job even if they have no teaching experience or training. By using non-certified personnel to do this work, qualified teachers can be

freed for more teaching.

Tests should be recorded so that a single monologue, for instance, can be scored for its demonstration of command of several elements or for reconsideration in case of doubt.

The language laboratory should be planned so that the student responses are recorded in succession on long tapes, with brief identification, no pauses and no recording of directions or questions so that the scorer will waste a minimum of time in tape handling. If the laboratory is not so designed, one should consider the economy of using a less highly trained person to edit the subject responses and group them on continuous tapes.

14. Subjects trying to produce a monologue may suffer emotional blocks, associational interferences, or memory lapses. It has long been known that many students encounter these same problems when they write examinations. This problem has not been solved for written examinations any more than for oral tests.

Increasing the number of practice items, making sure that the subject is at home with the electronic equipment, finding more intense stimuli, and giving more privacy to the speaker, all are ways of decreasing the frequency of emotional blocks. The provision of rich visual stimuli should solve most of the memory problems.

Because even with the greatest caution these interferences are still likely to appear, it would seem unwise to base judgment on a single monologue per subject. Possibly several monologues should be called for but only the best one counted.

15. There is no known substitute for a test of oral proficiency. A complete evaluation of linguistic development must include a test of oral proficiency.

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. Research must continue to identify more factors of proficiency, to assess the importance of these factors to the native listener, and to test their relative importance. Parallel samples of speech differing in only one aspect could be played to groups of native listeners and their effect could be assessed by tests, questionnaires, and interviews.
2. This study could be duplicated by creating visual stimuli about a desert storm and cheating in school and oral stimuli about a housewife's day and camping problems to find out if the conclusions about the different effects of oral and visual stimuli are well founded or if the effects noticed can be attributed to the topics of the stimuli.
3. This study used university students as subjects. A study comparing the proficiency of early high school students with advanced university students would provide information useful in testing beginners in second-language study.
4. A better comparison of the effect of oral and visual stimuli could be gained from a study that would remove the visual stimuli as well as the oral stimuli from the speaker one minute before he starts speaking.
5. A useful study would be one that would explore whether the various

aspects of proficiency develop at different rates.

6. The unique characteristics of oral proficiency in conversation should be identified.

7. Complexity is known to be a factor of proficiency. An investigation is needed to determine what is the most suitable metric of complexity.

8. The possibility of testing every type of problem without translation should be investigated.

9. The test constructor still has to depend largely on unscientific observation and on his own contrastive analysis to select the problems of inter-language interference and to establish an order of relative importance for the various phonological, morphological and syntactical elements of language.

10. The subjects of the four language methodology classes from which the samples were drawn were predominantly female. If these classes are representative of language methodology classes generally, one can expect a large proportion of language teachers to be female. The social or psychological reasons for this imbalance between the proportion of male and female language teachers should be investigated There is also need to study the effect of the predominance of females among language teachers on the success of male language learners. The male adolescent, for example, who attaches great importance to physical robustness may find it difficult to accept the degree of identification with the teacher required during oral practice periods.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

"ORAL PROFICIENCY TEST SUBJECTS" QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name ____

2. Address ______________________________________

3. Phone __________ 4. Subject number _______ 5. Date _______

6. What language did you first speak?
English______
French ______
Other ______

7. What language do you speak with the most ease now?
English______
French ______
Other ______

8. Training in French.

School		University	
Grade	Hours per day	Year	Number of literature or language courses
I	______	I	______
II	______	II	______
III	______	III	______
IV	______	IV	______
V	______	V	______
VI	______	VI	______
VII	______	VII	______
VIII	______		
IX	______		
X	______		
XI	______		
XII	______		
XIII	______		

9. Training in English.

School		University	
Grade	Hours per day	Year	Number of literature or language courses
I	________	I	________
II	________	II	________
III	________	III	________
IV	________	IV	________
V	________	V	________
VI	________	VI	________
VII	________	VII	________
VIII	________		
IX	________		
X	________		
XI	________		
XII	________		
XIII	________		

10. How much French and / or English do you use in your personal life now? ____

____

APPENDIX B

MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Directions for Recording from Oral and Visual Stimuli

Afin de pouvoir déterminer comment les gens s'expriment, on va vous demander d'enregistrer quatre monologues d'une minute sur quatre sujets différents. Efforcez-vous de rester dans le cadre des sujets proposés. Les premier et deuxième monologues que vous aurez à dire seront précédes d'une histoire dont vous tâcherez de vous inspirer. Les troisième et quatrième monologues seront accompagnés d'une série d'images destinées à vous inspirer.

N'essayez pas de retenir toutes les idées fournies ou de parler de chacune des images. Vous pouvez organiser vos idées dans l'ordre que vous préférez. Il faut que vous vous sentiez libre d'exprimer des idées originales sur les sujets proposés et de les grouper comme bon vous semblera.

On vous demande d'user d'un langage familier. Imaginez que vous parlez à quelqu'un que vous connaissez bien. Dites tout ce que vous pourrez pendant l'intervalle donné. Ne cherchez pas à dire des choses extraordinaires, mais parlez le plus possible.

Voici un exemple: Ecoutez ce qu'un des voisins a à dire au sujet du petit François et soyez prêt à parler pendant une minute sur le même sujet. Ce premier monologue ne sera pas enregistré. Il servira simplement d'exercice.

> Le petit François aime bien crier. Ce bébé est mon voisin. Il ne crie que la nuit entre 11 heures du soir et 5 heures du matin. Pour le faire taire, sa mère crie et son père hurle. Le plus triste c'est que le docteur a dit que c'était très bien ainsi car il se faisait les poumons. Il fera un chanteur d'opéra. Pour l'instant

la famille chez nous ne dort plus. Je baîlle en classe (je m'en excuse). Papa s'endort au bureau et maman fait la sieste. Tout ça à cause de ce mioche. Quand on a protesté auprès des parents, ils ont dit qu'ils le laissaient pleurer pour qu'il n'ait pas de complexes plus tard. C'est dur pour nous. C'est dramatique d'avoir un tyran comme voisin.

Maintenant, en attendant le signal de commencer à parler, pensez à ce que vous allez dire au sujet du petit François. Commencez dans 1 minute quand ce signal-ci * vous sera donné. (1 minute) * (1 minute) *. Arrêtez-vous toujours quand vous entendez le signal que vous venez d'entendre.

(OSS) Le monologue suivant a pour sujet un orage dans le désert. Ecoutez bien, puis réfléchissez en attendant qu'on vous demande, à vous, de parler d'un orage dans le désert.

(OSS stimulus)
Six heures du matin. Pas un souffle d'air. Un des chameaux lance un cri. Une antilope surgit, se heurte la tête contre un rocher. A l'horizon il y a des signes d'orage. Le sable et la poussière tourbillonnent. Les canards sauvages poussent des cris. Il faut chercher un abri. Au dessus de ma tête je vois les marques de la dernière inondation. Les eaux vont remonter à cette hauteur-là. Il n'y a pas un instant à perdre. Les chameaux s'agenouillent. Chacun se perche. Le soleil disparaît. Les éclairs déchirent l'obscurité. Un coup de tonnerre retentit et d'énormes gouttes commencent à tomber. Nos vêtements collent à notre peau. Une fente s'ouvre dans la muraille; nous atteignons une terrasse. Les eaux remuent à nos pieds. Les flots font crouler les murailles. Enfin un rayon de soleil. L'orage est fini.

Bon, maintenant pensez un peu à ce que vous allez dire.(1 minute). Magnétophone en marche et commencez au signal. * (1 minute) * Arrêtez, s'il vous plait.

(OCS) On va maintenant vous demander de parler de ceux qui trichent en classe. Mais écoutez d'abord ceci:

(OCS stimulus)
Les tricheurs représentent un problème pour leurs camarades de classe qui se demandent parfois quelle attitude ils doivent adopter

---

* Bell

vis à vis d'eux. Faut-il les dénoncer? Faut-il jouer leur jeu? Les dénoncer au professeur, je ne le pense pas. Une classe est une petite communauté où l'on doit se sentir solidaire les uns des autres. Rapporter et dénoncer démoliraient l'esprit d'équipe et de bonne camaraderie qui doit régner dans ce groupe et créeraient, d'autre part, une lourde et pénible atmosphère de suspicion. Le rapporteur risquerait de se faire détester par la classe entière. Donc pas de rapportage. Mais on peut par quelques mots ou simplement par une mimique expressive faire savoir au tricheur que l'on n'est pas dupe de son manège. Cela peut suffire à le décourager.

Vous avez quelques instants pour penser à ce que vous allez dire. (1 minute) Magnétophone en marche. Commencez. * (1 minute) * Arrêtez, s'il vous plait.

(VSS) Prenez maintenant la série d'images au sujet de la journée d'une mère de famille. Vous aurez une minute pour répondre à la question: Que fait une mère de famille pendant le journée? Vous n'avez pas besoin de parler de chaque image ou de les prendre dans l'ordre donné. Vous pouvez aussi ajouter les idées que vous voulez. Avant qu'on vous donne le signal de commencer prenez un instant pour regarder les images. (1 minute) Voulez-vous commencer? * (1 minute) * Arrêtez, s'il vous plait.

(VCS) Vous avez devant vous une série d'images au sujet du camping. Elles sont sensées vous aider à parler des problèmes que pose le camping. Les gravures sont offertes tout simplement pour vous suggérer des idées et non pas vous imposer des limites. Prenez un instant pour décider de ce que allez dire. (1 minute) Magnétophone en marche et commencez s'il vous plait. * (1 minute) * Voulez-vous arrêter votre machines maintenant.

APPENDIX C

DIRECTIONS FOR MONOLOGUE PRODUCTION

In an effort to find out how people talk, we will ask you to record _four_ one-minute monologues on _four different topics_. So that you don't have to worry about what to say, you will be given four definite topics to speak on. In addition before two of these monologues, you will be invited to listen to something on the same subject as you are going to speak. To help you do the other two, you will be shown a series of pictures suggestive of ideas.

You do not need to try to remember all of the ideas you hear or to talk about all the pictures you see. You do not need to talk about the ideas and pictures in the order in which they were presented. You should feel free to add ideas of your own or to modify those presented. However, you are asked to keep to the subject as much as possible.

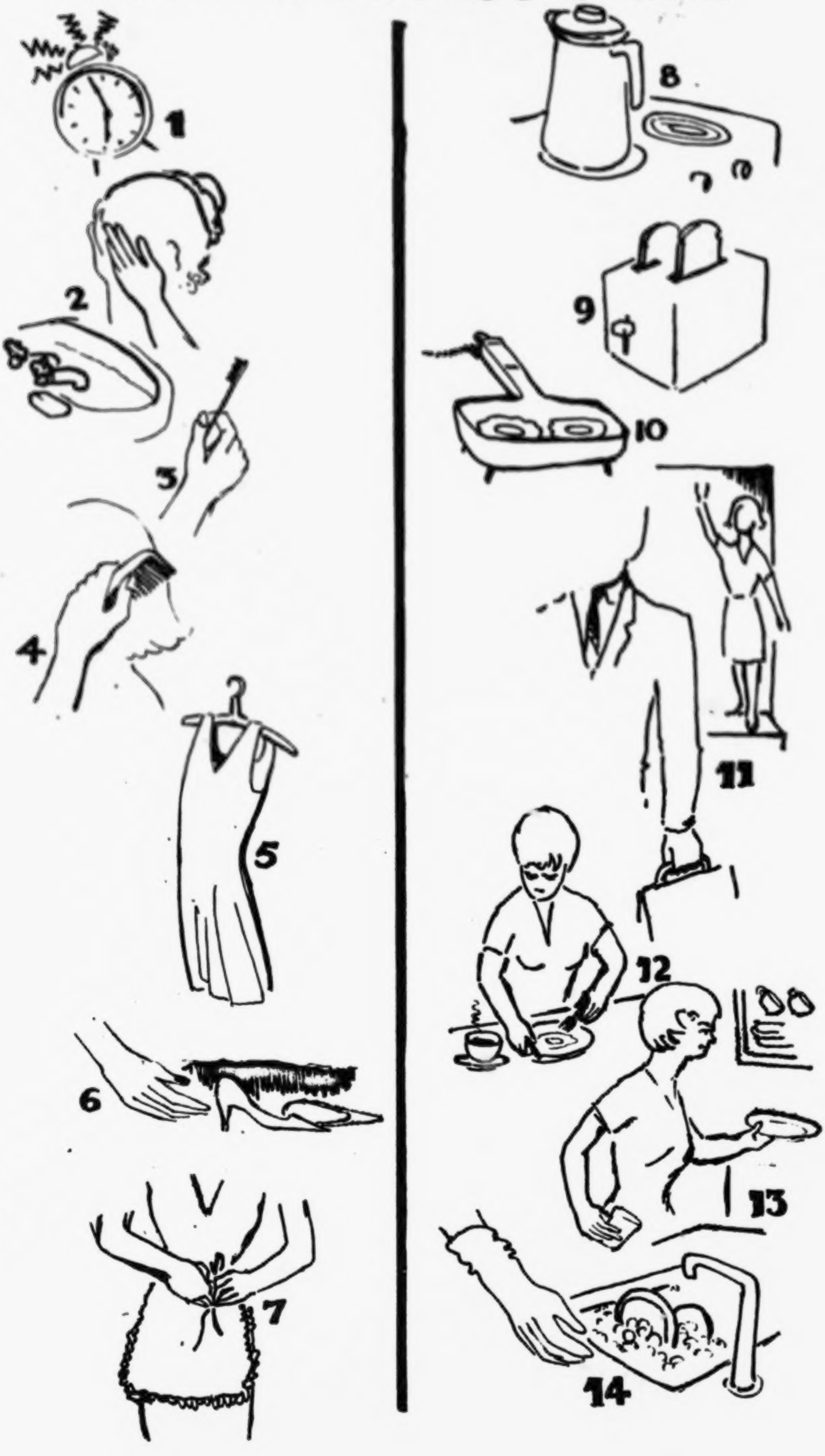
When you are speaking, imagine you are talking to someone with whom you are at ease because we want your language to be as natural as possible. Do not try to be formal in your style. But in order to produce as large a sample of speech as possible, please say as much as you can between the stopping and starting signals.

After each topic is presented you will be given a few moments to organize your thoughts. The directions will be given orally and in French. The directions you have just read will be repeated. Now just listen.

APPENDIX D

VISUAL STIMULI

La Journée d'une Mère de Famille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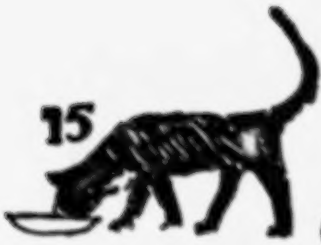

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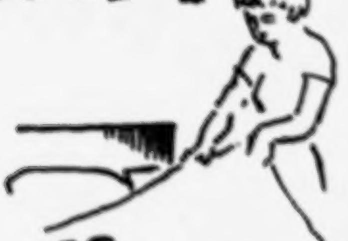

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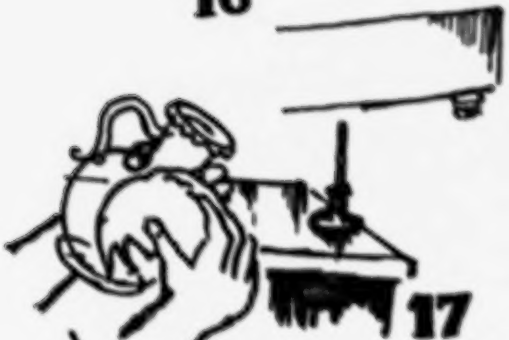

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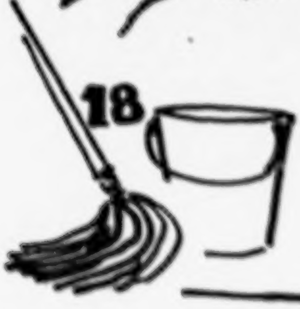

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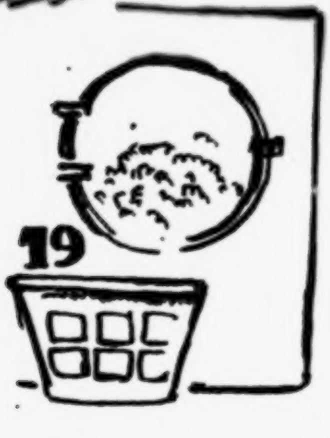

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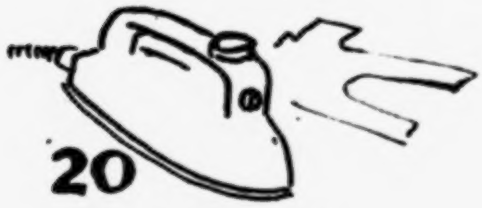

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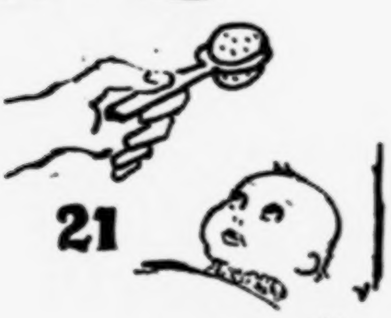

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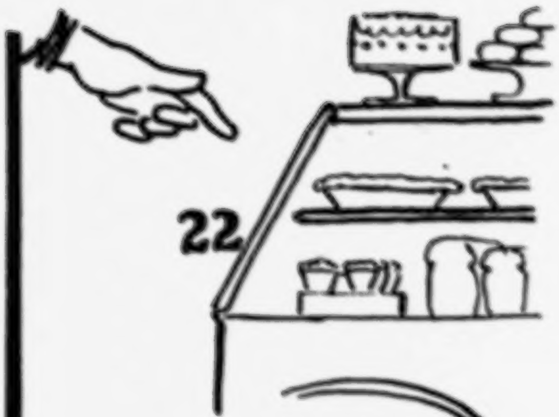

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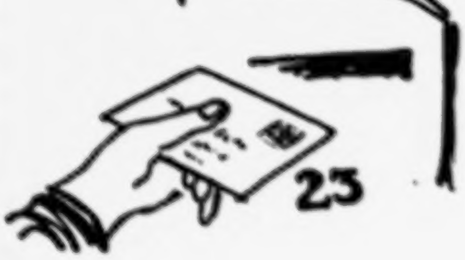

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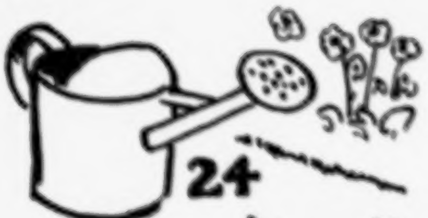

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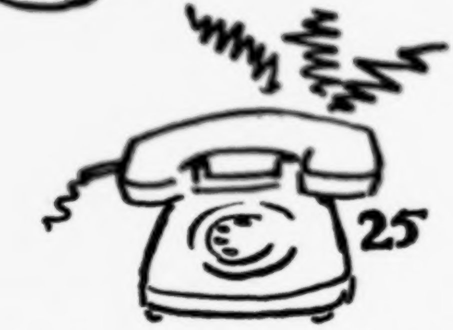

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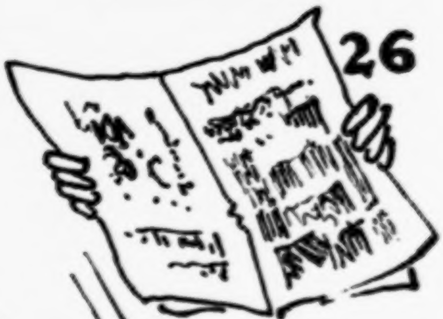

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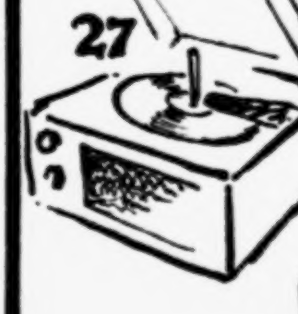

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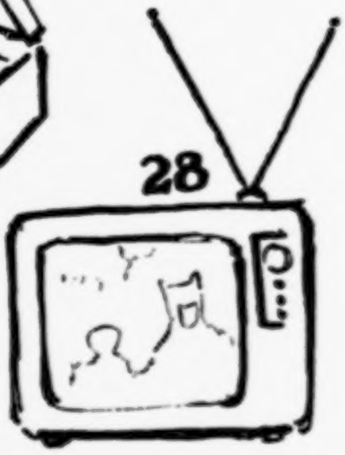

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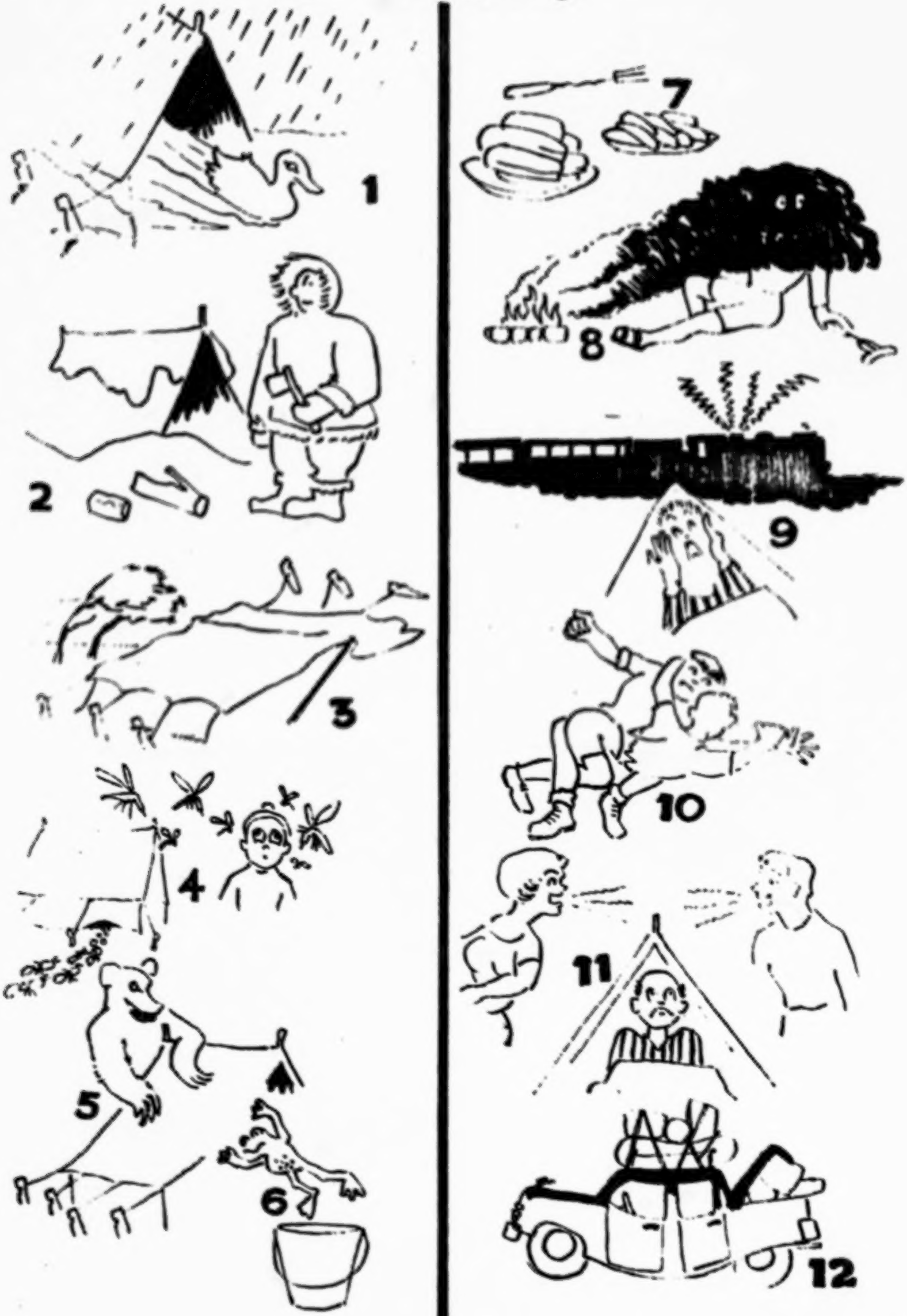
Le Camping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APPENDIX E

STIMULI ROTATION SHEET

NAMES (1) OSS (2) OCS (3) VSS (4) VCS

Group

1. ____________________ 1, 2, 3, 4

2. ____________________ 1, 3, 2, 4

3. ____________________ 1, 4, 3, 2

4. ____________________ 3, 1, 4, 2

5. ____________________ 3, 2, 4, 1

6. ____________________ 3, 4, 2, 1

7. ____________________ 2, 1, 4, 3

8. ____________________ 2, 3, 1, 4

9. ____________________ 4, 2, 3, 1

10. ____________________ 4, 3, 1, 2

APPENDIX F

TRANSCRIPTIONS OF MONOLOGUE RESPONSES

Legend

1. Structures of modification are underlined. An arrow at the end of a line indicates that that structure continues on the next line. An arrow at the beginning indicates that it started on the previous line. The structures are identified by M, F, or S in the right margin.
2. An x above the line - noun determiner.
3. An o above the line - preposition or conjunction.
4. An * above the line - pronoun.
5. A p above the line - predicate.
6. A number above the line - vocoids in that sentence.
7. A number below the line - a point of hesitation. The number indicates the type of hesitation: (1) noun-lexical intrusive sound, (2) sentence correction, (3) word change, (4) repetition, (5) stutter, (6) omission of part of a word, (7) sentence incompletion, (8) tongue slip, (9) unnatural pauses, unfilled.
8. T - total.
9. W - words.
10. H - hesitations.
11. WOC - word-order conflicts.
12. P&C - prepositions & conjunctions.
13. Det - noun determiners.
14. Pro - pronouns.
15. Pron - pronunciation problem demonstrations.
16. WOE - word-order errors.

OS - 1 A 1

9
On marchait dans le désert puis puis (7) FMM
9 9 9 9

2M - 2

1F - 2

OS - 0

T 4

W - 7

IC - 57

VOC - 9

P - 1

H - 4

OC - 1 A 1

p 4 p p 9
Pourquoi tricher? Qu'est-ce que ça donne de tricher en classe? F
5

p p
Après tout un examen n'est pas seulement un moyen de savoir ce FMSS
5 5

p 23 8
que nous avons appris. Une évaluation de nous-mêmes. Et puis FM
5

p p 12 p
lorsqu'on on se fait prendre, n'est-ce pas humiliant? C'est S
4

p 12
quelque chose dont on on n'aime pas trop parler. Et si quel- SMS
4

p p
qu'un nous, nous-mêmes, nous attrappons quelqu'un qui triche, S
2

p p 19 p
qu'est-ce qu'on doit faire? Le dire au professeur ou seule- M

p 16
ment que le garder pour nous-mêmes? N'est-ce pas être juste de F

p 6 p p
le dire? Et pourtant qu'est-ce que nos camarades vont penser
9

17
de quelque chose de (114)
9

4M - 4

4F - 8

6S - 18

T 30

W - 114

IC - 26

VOC - 126

P - 19

H - 9

VC - 1 A 1

p p 11
C'est bien le (fun) camper mais ça pose beaucoup de problèmes. F

p p 15
Il y a la la premièrement il y a la tente à installer. MS
4 2 9

p
Ce qui parfois parfois on ne trouve pas de place de MM
4 1 1

p 17 p 7
place pour la mettre. Ensuite où l' où l'installer? Il y SM
4 4 1

p
a les nuits fraîches surtout dans notre bout du pays où il faut MMFFS
1

p p
s'assurer de de toujours être toujours avoir assez de MF
4 4

p 44
couvertes pour pouvoir se tenir à l'abris de la fraîcheur. Il SFF
1 1

p 9 p
y a l'inconvenient des repas. On fait pardessus un feu de FFF
1

p
camp ou un un feu et ce qui nous donne pas grand choix de nourriture MF
4 1

surtout des peut-être seulement que des hot-dogs et du MF
2

39 p 7
(hamburger). Il aimerait peut-être parfois (120) M

10M - 10 W - 120

11F - 22 IC - 37

4S - 12 VOC - 138

T 44 P - 15

H - 18

VS - 1 A 1

o x x p 10 o * *
Pour une mère la journée est bien remplie. D'abord elle se FMF

p o x x o o x x
lève tot avant tous les autres et après une courte toilette MFMFM
1

* p o p x o x x 31 *
s'habille et fait le déjeuner pour toute la famille. Il y a FM
1

x x o p x o p 15 x
le café, les céréales à sortir, la table à mettre. Puis les FFM

* p o * * o * p o x 18
enfants se lèvent et elle les aident à se préparer pour l'école. F
9

o x p o x p o
Après que les enfants sont partis, que son mari est parti pour SSF

x * x o p x o p o
l'ouvrage, il y a la vaisselle à faire, la maison à nettoyer et FS

x x x o p x o
des fois quelques jours la lessive à faire, le repassage à FFMFF
2

p 50 o o x * * x o p
faire. Mais entre tout ça il y a le bébé à prendre soin FMS

x o p x o o * p
le bébé qui souvent demande l'attention et qu'elle doit laisser S
4

o o * p 37
laisser de coté ce qu'elle fait pour (131) F

8M -	8	W	- 131	WOC	- 1
15F -	30	IC	- 40	P&C	- 27
5S -	15	VOC	- 161	Det	- 25
T	53	P	- 18	Pro	- 13
		H	- 5	Pron	- 16

WOC - les aident

Pron - (1) remplie (2) tous (3) __ (4) céréales (5) enfants (6) entre (7) puis (8) toilette (9) famille (10) mettre (11) lessive (12) __ (13) toute (14) habille (15) souvent (16) __ (17) pour une (18) repassage (19) D'abord . . . famille. (20) __

OS - 2 A 1

p p
Que c'est ennuyeux d'avoir un un orage dans le désert où nous sommes FS
4 1 9

24
si loin de nos voisins. Au dessus de notre tête nous pouvons FFF
1 9 9

p 17 p
apercevoir les signes d'un orage. Les vêtements se collent à F
1 1 9 1

9 p p
à notre peau. Nous avons à peine de la peine à marcher FS
4 9 2 9

p p
et nous cherchons une place pour pour nous éloigner de l'orage S
9 1 1 5

p 31
mais en vain il n'y en a pas (71)

ÓM -	0	W	- 71	H	- 18
6F -	12	IC	- 30		
3S -	9	VOC	- 81		
T	21	P	- 9		

OC - 2 A 1

p
Tricher en classe n'est certainement pas très honnête puis- FM
9

p p 26
que l'élève en le faisant vole les réponses des autres. Je SSF
1

p p
comprends qu'il qu'il serait mieux de pouvoir parler à cet S
4 9

p
élève personnellement et de pouvoir lui expliquer les effets MS
1 5 5

38 p
de son truchement en classe. Cependant si cela n'aboutit à FFS
9 1

p p
rien, je crois qu'il serait bien de consulter le professeur S
1 1

p
très discrètement sans que l'élève s'en aperçoive et de cette FMSF
1

p 51
manière il pourra se corriger plus tot. (83)
1

3M - 3
6F - 12
7S - 21
T 36

W - 83
IC - 43
VOC - 115
P - 13
H - 13

VC - 2 A 1

p
Il y a déja quelques temps que mon petit frère, Roger, désire MM

p p
aller camper mais voici qu'un qu'un orage survient et il lui est
1 4

p 38 p
impossible d'y aller. Mais voici qu'un jour le temps est bien SM

p 18 p
favorable et il se met en marche. Il il désire avoir beaucoup
1 4

11 p p
d'aventure. Rendu au terrain de camping, il s'aperçoit que FFFF

p p 24
tout n'est pas aussi bien qu'il le le pensait. Les abeilles le
9 4

p p 12
piquent, les crapeaux qui le l'épeurent. Cependant il
4 7

p 12
essaie de jouir de son séjour. (91)
9

3M - 3
4F - 8
1S - 3
T 14

W - 91
IC - 15
VOC - 115
P - 14
H - 9

VS - 2 A 1

* * p x o x o 14 o
Je vais vous raconter la journée d'une mère de famille. Vers FFF
1

x * * p * p * p x *
six heures elle se lève, se lave, se brosse les dents, se

p x o * p 20 * p x
brosse les cheveux et s'habille. Ensuite elle met son tablier, M
9

p x x o x o p o x
prépare le petit déjeuner pour son mari qui partira pour son MFS
1

27 o * * p o
travail. Lorsque elle lui dit ensuite aurevoir et ensuite MM
9 2

* * p x o * o p x 28
elle elle descend la table et se met à laver la vaisselle. Ensuite M
4 1

* p ox x o x 12 * p x
elle vague aux autres travaux de la maison. Elle soigne le MF
1

4
chien. (80)

6M - 6
4F - 8
1S - 3
T 17

W - 80
IC - 21
VOC - 91
P - 14
H - 8

WOC - 3
P&C - 11
Det - 12
Pro - 14
Pron - 16

WOC - vous raconter, mère de famille, lui dit.

Pron - (1) mari (2) travaux (3) ___ (4) descend (5) ensuite (6) ensuite (7) ensuite (8) aurevoir (9) habille (10) autres (11) vaisselle (12) ___ (13) petit (14) habille (15) met (16) ___ (17) ensuite aurevoir (18) aurevoir (19) Vers . . . s'habille. (20) ___

OS - 3 A 1

p 6 p 7
Il est six heures du soir. Tout est tranquil dans le désert. FF

p p 14
On s'aperçoit à l'horizon qu'il y a des signes d'orage. Le FF
1 9

p p 12 p
temps est humide et soudain le vent se lève. Le ciel devient M
1 4

p
de plus en plus noirci par les nuages et le vent devient de FF
1 1

24 p p
plus en plus fort. Les animaux crient et cherchent l'abris et F
4 9

p 18
la vue devient plus en plus. (71) F

1M - 1
8F - 16
OS - 0
T 17

W - 71
IC - 24
VOC - 81
P - 11
H - 8

OC - 3 A 1

p p 12
C'est évident qu'à l'école il y a des tricheurs. Le problème F

p p p
c'est soit des dénoncer ou de leur parler afin de les décourager
5 5 9

p 25 p
dans ce qu'ils font. Le camarade a ce problème de soit se faire SS
1 9 9

p p
entrainer par le tricheur ou de de le dénoncer au professeur d'une FSF
9 4

34
manière ou de l'autre. Peut-être que la meilleure façon FMM

p
serait de de parler à son camarade tricheur et de le lui faire M
4 3

p p
comprendre que ce qu'il fait n'est pas bien et peut-être en MF
1

p p
cette façon que le résultat sera meilleur que de dénoncer au
1 5

p 70
professeur ou à la classe et de le ridiculer. (109)

4M - 4	W - 109
5F - 10	IC - 21
3S - 9	VOC - 141
T 23	P - 15
	H - 13

VC - 3 A 1

3 p
Le camping. Lorsqu'une personne va à un camp, il peut SF
1 1

p 17
rencontrer plusieurs problèmes. Un des problèmes les plus MFF
1

p p 20
difficile à s'adapter est celui des éléments. La personne doit SFF
1 3

p p
peut rencontrer soit une une pluie ou geler comme un eskimo F
4 1

p p 32
ou rencontrer des vents qui sont pas trop agréables. En plus SMF
1 9 1

p
de de la temperature les insectes peuvent faire la la visite ou F
4 1 1 1 4

la vacance de la visite ou de la vacance un peu de FF
2 1

39
de problèmes aussi. (79) M
1

3M - 3	W - 79
9F - 18	IC - 39
3S - 9	VOC -111
T 31	P - 9
	H - 18

VS - 3 A 1
x o x o 8 ox o ox x
La journée d'une mère de famille. Du matin jusqu'au soir la FFFF

o x o p x 24 *
mère de famille est très occuppée à entretenir sa maison. Elle FMS

* p o x p x o x o
se lève de bonne heure, prépare le déjeuner pour sa famille et FMF

p o * p * o o x o x 31
voit qu'ils partent tous en temps pour le travail ou l'école. FFF
5 4

* * O p x o o p x
Ensuite elle s'occuppe à faire le lavage et à entretenir sa M
9

19 * p x o p o x p
maison. Elle a aussi du réparage à faire et les repas prennent MS
4 9

o x 20 * p x p
beaucoup de son temps. Elle peut entretenir le jardin, faire F
1
x o o x p x o
un peu de lecture dans l'après-midi, écrire des lettres mais FF
1

o o * p o o * p 37 x
de plus en plus elle a moins de temps pour se divertir. Le FS
5

o x 6
soir lorsque toute. (110)

5M - 5
13F - 26
3S - 9
T 40

W - 110
IC - 36
VOC - 145
P - 15
H - 8

WOC - 2
P&C - 28
Det - 23
Pro - 10
Pron - 14

WOC - mère de famille, partent tous.

Pron - (1) journée, aussi (2) au, ou (3) ___ (4) occuppée (5) entretenir

(6) temps (7) ensuite (8) voit (9) famille (10) mère (11) ___ (12) ___

(13) pour (14) heure (15) temps (16) ___ (17) elle a (18) occuppée

(19) Elle . . . divertir. (20) ___

OS - 4 A 1

6 p
Un orage dans le désert. Beaucoup de choses nous disent qu'il FF

p 15 p
y a qu'il va y avoir un orage. Les animaux en ressentent
2

11 p
aussi l'effet. Les nuages sont bas et gris et le soleil dis- M

p 15 p p 10
parait bientôt. Le sable tourbillone et le vent s'élève. M

p p
L'antilope surgit mais aussitôt se heurte la tête contre un M

17 p
rocher. Il faut se trouver un abris avant que l'orage com-

p 15 p p 13
mence. Nous cherchons et bientôt une muraille est devant nous. M

p p 14
Nous y trouvons l'abris que nous devions que nous cherchions. F
2

p
Avant tout à coup de grosses gouttes commencent à tomber FM
3

p 24
et nous sommes très fiers d'être à l'abris de cet orage. (113) MSF

6M - 6
5F - 10
1S - 3
T 19

W - 113
IC - 17
VOC - 140

P - 17
H - 2

OC - 4 A 1

p
Les tricheurs en classe posent des problèmes à leurs leurs
4

23
autres compagnons et aussi aux professeurs. Maintenant, quelle MM

p 13
est la solution à ce problème? Est-ce qu'il faut les F

p p p 14
dénoncer ou faire comme ils font eux aussi? Si nous les SS

p p p
dénonçons, nous nous courons le risque de ne pas être aimé par S
4 5

p p 37
eux ou de briser la solidarité de l'équipe que la classe forme. SFS

p p 6 p
Alors, qu'est-ce qu'il faut faire? Il faut leur montrer que M

p p p
nous savons qu'ils trichent et essayer par divers gestes et FM
9 9 9

p p
autres méthodes de leur montrer le mal qui existe dans cette FMS
9 9

40
méthode d'emploi en classe. Maintenant le tricheur ne peut- FFMM
9 2

p 16
être ne nous écoutera pas. Mais au moins nous essaierons F

p 17
par notre exemple de les diriger dans. (127) F
9 9

7M - 7
8F - 16
6S - 18
T 41

W - 127
IC - 32
VOC - 166
P - 20
H - 12

VC - 4 A 1

p
Avant d'envisager une semaine de camping vous devez être prêt F

p 25 p
à faire face à tous ces obstacles. Ces obstacles peuvent être SFM

la pluie, le vent, les moustiques, les animaux sauvages, et M

22 p
ainsi de suite. Aussi vous devez être prêt à savoir comment MF

p p 27
faire un feu et comment resister aux bruits environnants. Ces M

p p
bruits peuvent être des automobiles, des trains qui passent, S

p 23
des garçons qui se disputent, et autres choses. Aussi vous SMM

p
devez penser à toutes les choses que vous devez apporter pour M

25 p
cette semaine de camping. Votre auto peut être très encombré F

p 20
si vous ne choisissez pas vos vos effets seulement que les SM
4 2

p 17
effets que vous avez exceptionellement de besoin. Aussi les SM

p
animaux qui approchent votre tente peuvent être très inconvé- S
9

p 24
nients vous pouvez avoir l'ours. (125)

9M - 9

4F - 8

6S - 18

T 35

W - 125

IC - 28

VOC - 183

P - 17

H - 4

VS - 4 A 1

o x x o p x 16
Pendant la journée la mère de famille est très très affairée. FFMM
4

* p x o o * x
Elle fait toutes sortes de choses qui certaines difficiles MFM
9 3

x x x 17 o x * * p *
d'autres moins difficiles. Après le lever elle se lave, se FMF

p * p x * p 16 p x
peigne, se brosse les dents, s'habille. Ensuite vient le temps M

ox 9 * p x o x o x
du déjeuner. Elle prépare le café et les oeufs pour le restant FF

o x 17 o x p o x
de la famille. Ensuite après que le père part pour l'office, FMSF

* * p o x o x x o p 24
elle se voit devant la vaisselle et d'autres choses à faire. FFS
9

* p x p x p x
Elle fait les lits, nettoie le plancher, fait la lessive,

p x o p ox 23 x o
repasse le linge et prend soin du bébé. Ensuite une autre de FMF

x o p x 18 * p x
ses activités est de faire le magasinage. Elle achète tous M
9 9

x o x x 13 2
les bons mets pour son prochain repas. Ensuite. (118) MFMM

12M - 12
13F - 26
2S - 6
T 44

W - 118
IC - 39
VOC - 115
P - 18
H - 6

WOC - 1
P&C - 19
Det - 33
Pro - 12
Pron - 16

WOC - mère de famille.

Pron - (1) journée (2) tous (3) ___ (4) difficiles (5) temps (6) ensuite (7) ensuite (8) voit (9) famille (10) faire (11) vaisselle (12) ___ (13) café (14) habille (15) oeufs (16) ___ (17) très affairée (18) activité (19) Elle . . . bébé. (20) ___

OS - 5 A 1
3 p 10
Le désert. Il y a-t-un homme qui marche dans le désert. Il il SF
4

p p p 16
a soif, son chameau est fatigué, et il vente beaucoup. L'homme M

p p
se rend sur le haut de la colline et et il croit apercevoir un FF
5 4

25 p
étang ou une source d'eau. Il descend la colline et il F
9 9 1

p p 18 p
s'aperçoit que son jugement était faux. Son chameau n'en peut

6 p p
pu. Alors il se repose espérant que que peut-être qu'il va MM
4

p 17
pleuvoir. (77)

3M - 3
4F - 8
1S - 3
T 14

W - 77
IC - 16
VOC - 95
P - 13
H - 8

OC - 5 A 1

p p
Je suis d'accord avec le narrateur qu'il ne faut pas dénoncer le le F
4

20 p p
tricheur. La classe est une est un endroit où que qu'il faut qu'il S
2 3

p 26
y ait un atmosphère de où que l'on aide un à l'autre. Comme profes- SFF
3

p p
seur je crois que le professeur doit exiger de ses élèves le

27 p
l'honnêteté parmi eux. Il doit aussi voir à ce que les les élèves FM
3 9 4

p p 25
n'aient pas le chance ou ne soient pas tentés à tricher. De la F
1 1

p p
part des élèves il faut qu'ils qu'ils se développent, qu' F
4 1

p p p p 31
ils aient le caractère à à réaliser que que tricher c'est leur. (110)
1 1 5 4 1

1M - 1
6F - 12
2S - 6
T 19

W - 110
IC - 17
VOC - 129
P - 17
H - 17

VC - 5 A 1

```
         3        p                                    p
Le camping.  Il y a beaucoup de difficultés lorsqu'on fait>        FS
                                                     1

          15              p                      p         10
>du camping.  Lorsqu'on quitte peut-être qu'il fait du soleil.     S

              p                               p   14
Cependant on est en marche et il commence à pleuvoir.  Rendu)      M

                   p                   p       16
>à notre camp il y a la difficulté à faire le feu.  Ensuite il     FSM
 5                                         5

  p       6                                   p          11
y a le vent.  Aussi les maringouins peuvent bâdrer beaucoup.       MM
          1            1                          1

                      p                     13
Une autre difficulté sont les animaux sauvages.  Les un ourson     MM
                                                    3

                     p                      15
un ours peut venir manger peut-être à la tente.  (76)              F
       3           1
```

6M - 6	W - 76
3F - 6	IC - 28
3S - 9	VOC - 103
T 21	P - 12
	H - 9

VS - 5 A 1

```
 x         o  x        o       9    x              p   6    *
La journée d'une mère de famille.  Le réveil-matin sonne.  Il      FF

 p   x         4  x        *   p   ox        o   *  * p 12
est sept heures.  La mère se rend au lavabo et elle se lave.
                                              1

          o   *   *   p          ox     11      *
Tout près d'elle il y a déja un des petits.  Elle ensuite          MFF
                                                         2
```

* p x o * p x o x
elle brosse ses dents et elle peigne les cheveux de son petit FM
1 1

18 x p o p o x o
enfant. Ensuite la maman retourne ou va dans la cuisine et MMF
1 1

* p x 19 * p x o p
elle met son tablier. Elle fait réchauffer le café et prépare
1 1

x 15 o x p o x o
le déjeuner. Papa et les enfants déjeune avec la maman et F
1

x * p o x 26 x 5
ensuite le papa s'en va à son bureau. Ensuite la maman. (94) MFM
9 1 1

6M - 6
8F - 16
OS - 0
T 22

W - 94
IC - 23
VOC - 125
P - 14
H - 12

WOC - 2
P&C - 16
Det - 20
Pro - 12
Pron - 14

WOC - mère de famille, cheveux de . . . enfant.

Pron - (1) journée (2) lavabo (3) ___ (4) café (5) enfant (6) enfant (7) ensuite (8) ___ (9) famille (10) retourne (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) tablier (14) heure (15) enfant (16) ___ (17) il est (18) réchauffer (19) Papa . . . bureau. (20) ___

OS - 6 A 1

p 10
Moi, je ne suis jamais allé au désert. Mes mon ami, Jacques, FM

p 11 p
m'en a souvent parlé. Il m'a parlé de cette aventure qu'il S
9

p 18 p
a eu v'là deux ans au désert. Il était avec son ami lorsque FFS
5

p
tout à coup le vent commença à souffler, les sables montent FF

p 30 p
ont monté dans les airs. Il regarda autour de lui et il FF
2 9

p p
aperçut la marque que l'eau avait fait lors de la dernière SFM

32 p
orage dans ce même désert. Il se dit alors qu'il fallait FM

p p
s'enfuir au plus vite car l'eau monterait bien encore FMSMM

26 p p
jusqu'à ce degré. Il s'enfuit avec son ami et il arriva à la FFF
9 9

20 p
hauteur de cette marque. Lorsqu'il fut arrivé, il un FS
5 3

16
un grand soupir de soulagement. (126) MF
4

7M - 7
15F - 30
5S - 15
T 52

W - 126
IC - 41
VOC - 163
P - 16
H - 9

OC - 6 A 1

6 p
Un tricheur, quel problème! Ca m'arrive parfois d'avoir des M

p 16 p
camarades dans la classe qui trichent. Je me rend compte qu' FS

p 18
ils regardent soit sur ma copie ou sur celle du voisin. Que FFF

p p 11
faire alors? Doit-on les détester? Non. Doit-on les M
1

12
dénoncer au professeur? Peut-être. Mais la puisque la classe MS
2

p
est une petite communauté,et qu'il faut s'entre-aider, et qu'il faut SS

p 23 p p 11
s'aimer. Pourquoi est-ce que j'aimerais le voir punir? Non.

p p
Peut-être que ça serait mieux d'aller le voir et de lui dire, MSS

p p 27
de lui expliquer que ce n'est pas bien tricher. Peut-être SM

p p
ne n'a-t-il jamais eu l'occasion de l'apprendre soit chez MSF
5 5

22 p
lui ou même à l'école. Ou s'il est trop susceptible, peut- FMSMM

p 13
être serait-il mieux. (132)

9M - 9

6F - 12

9S - 27

T 48

W - 132

IC - 36

VOC - 159

P - 19

H - 4

VC - 6 A 1

p p
Le camping est très intéressant mais parfois il cause de M

20 p p 8
grandes difficultés. Prenez par exemple lorsqu'il pleut. Il MFS

p 9 p
faut avoir une tente au dehors. Et s'il pleut pendant longtemps FSF
5

p 13 p
plus moyen de rester. Ensuite il s'agit il faut parler MSM
2

14 p
aussi du chauffage. C'est difficile d'avoir du bois pour MSS

p 12 p 9
faire un feu. Des fois il faut travailler longtemps. Et FM

p p
puis troisièmement il y a le vent parce qu'on a installé notre MS
5

p 25
tente et que le vent commence à souffler. Elle ne reste pas

p 10
installé trop longtemps. Il y a aussi les insectes, les FM

p 17
moustiques qui aiment beaucoup notre bon sang. Les abeilles SM
1

8
et bien d'autres encore. (112) MM

11M - 11
5F - 10
7S - 21
T 42

W - 112
IC - 38
VOC - 145
P - 16
H - 4

VS - 6 A 1

x o p x x o p 12 o *
La mère de famille a une grosse journée à faire. D'abord elle FMF

* * p o x o x o x
elle doit se lever de bonne heure bien avant les autres de la FMFF

19 * o * p x x 12
famille. Elle commence par se laver la figure, les dents.

* * p * p x x o o
Ensuite elle s'habille, elle met sa robe, ses souliers, et ce qui M

p x x o * * p
est encore plus important , son tablier car il lui faut pré- MMS

o 36 * * p * o
parer à déjeuner. Elle s'installe donc, elle commence par M

p x x 15 * p x o
faire le café, les rôties. Elle fait cuire des oeufs pour F

x o o x p 18 x
son mari qui dans quelques instants va déjeuner. Ensuite son mari SFM

p 7 * p o * o x 13
déjeune. Elle peut parler avec lui pendant quelques instants. FFM

o * * p o * p o x 15
Et puis elle lui dit bonjour alors qu'il part pour son travail. MFF

o x o * p x ox
Et quelques instants après, peut-être que c'est l'heure du FMMMF
1

x o x 21
petit déjeuner pour les enfants. (129) MF

13M - 13	W - 129	WOC - 1
12F - 24	IC - 33	P&C - 24
2S - 6	VOC - 168	Det - 25
T 43	P - 16	Pro - 20
	H - 2	Pron - 15

WOC - mère de famille.

Pron - (1) lever (2) faut (3) ___ (4) important (5) commence (6) commence (7) ensuite (8) doit (9) famille (10) cuire (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) café (14) heure (15) peut (16) ___ (17) bien avant (18) préparer (19) Ensuite . . . déjeuner. (20) ___

OS - 7 A 1

p 13
C'est un peu amusant ce tant d'eau dans le désert. FFF
2 1

p
Aussi l'idée du de l'antilope qui se frappe la tête sur un MFSF
9 3

p 23
rocher, c'est très amusant. Probablement que cet orage-là MM
1

p p
c'est jamais survenu au désert mais il y aurait plus telle- MFM

ment de désert du moins par la quantité d'eau qui semble FFS
5

p 47 p
avoir tombé à ce moment-là. Un orage j'imagine qu'un orage F
2

p
dans le désert, ça serait plutôt dans le genre tempête de FMF
1

p
sable que que pluie et que ça serait peut-être enrichissant
4

p
pour le pour le les sables du désert que d'avoir cette eau qui FS
4 3 5

p
viendrait peut-être en justement enrichir la la la terre, F
1 2 4 4

p
le sable et qui permettrait peut-être d'avoir des un› SF
3 9 9

p p
›peu plus de végétation. Ca serait agréable je pense bien FM

100
aussi. (134) M

8M - 8

15F - 30

4S - 12

T 50

W - 134

IC - 39

VOC - 183

P - 14

H - 19

OC - 7 A 1

p p
Vous avez raison de dire que enfin que le qu'il n'est
9 4 2

p 25 p
pas bon quoi de rapporter au professeur. C'est une attitude

p 15
qu'i'ne faut pas non plus encourager. D'autres parts b'en SFFM
1 1

p
les tricheurs pour moi c'est un peu dégoutant l'attitude FM
1 9 9

p 20 p
qu'ils prennent. Je je me demande si une mimique adressée M
4 1

p 18
à leur endroit suffirait. Est-ce que il serait pas mieux

p
peut-être, étant donné que la classe justement est une› SM

p
›communauté, alors d'en parler en tant que que groupe et MSF
4

p p
puis voir à ce que ces élèves-là assistent si vous voulez SMS

p
parler du sujet de du trichage en classe et ils vont se FF
3 9

p
sentir quand même un peu peut-être espérons mal à l'aise et FFF

p
puis peut-être ça aidera à leur faire comprendre que ça ne M
1 9

p p
donne rien parce que plus tard si il se font du tort à eux- SFF
2

113 p
mêmes. Ils ne font absolument pas de tort ni au professeur MF

ni à leurs confrères mais plutôt à eux-mêmes et qu'ils en M

p 34
souffri souffriront. (173)
5

9M - 9

12F - 24

6S - 18

T 51

W - 173

IC - 29

VOC - 225

P - 20

H - 17

VC - 7 A 1

p p 15
Les joies du camping c'est comme ça que j'intitulerais ça. FF

p p
On se demande pourquoi des gens partent de la ville alors FMS

p
qu'ils sont si bien dans leur foyer puis qu'ils s'en vont MFMS

p
avoir un peu de difficulté, oh, par exemple de la fumé qui qui FFF
1 4

49 p
pendant la cuisson. Ensuite le les gens qui partent qui MFS
7 3 2

p p
hurlent toute la nuit justement qui ont des petits partys FMMSM

p
toute la nuit pendant qu'on essaie de dormir et surtout l'eau FMSFM

p p
qui lorsqu'il pleut l'eau qui souvent pénètre dans la tente SSF
1 4 1

p 62
parce que des gens ne savent pas comment placer les tentes. S
1

p
C'est arrivé déjà pas à moi personnellement avec des amis qui MMF
2 5

p 28 p
se sont réveillés pendant la nuit. Il y avait un orage et puis SFM
1

p 24
ils de fait ils étaient presque ils étaient vraiment inondés. FMM
2 2

p p p
Alors ils sont obligés de tout tout empaqueter et puis retourner MM
4

p
à la maison pour pouvoir dormir pour pouvoir dormir confort- FSM
1

36
ablement. Il y a aussi cette idée des moustiques qui nous M
1

p 24
mais je crois bien que c'est l'appel de la nature. (184) MF

19M - 19
17F - 34
10S - 30
T 83

W - 184
IC - 45
VOC - 238
P - 21
H - 15

VS - 7 A 1

* x o p o * * p o x o
Il serait bon peut-être de savoir s'il s'agit de la mère de FS

x o * o 25 x x
famille actuelle ou celle d'autrefois. Autrefois toutes ces MFMM
1 1

p o o o p x
images correspondraient à vraiment à ce que faisait la mère M
1 2 9

o o * p x x x
de famille mais maintenant bien c'est un peu le même genre FMMFM

o * p o * p x o o
si vous voulez mais il y a un peu plus peut-être de d'appareils SFF
3

x o p x o p x o
electriques pour aider la mère, pour faciliter le travail de MSSF
2

x o o * p o *
la mère malgré que si elle est vraiment mère de famille, elle SMF

p o x o x
doit quand même continuellement voir à l'entretien de la FMF

ox o ox 104 o * p
maison, au repas et au lavage. Mais on se rend compte
1

o x o x p
souvent que les mères de famille peu nombreuse sont plus MFFMFM

ox o o o p x o
souvent au téléphone qu'en train de faire le ménage, en

o p o x 42 o * p
train de clapoter avec la voisine. Mais il existe quand F
5

o o o o p
même de excellentes mères de famille qui qui sont vraiment MFS
4

o o o o p o32
comme les mères d'autrefois, qui qui prennent encore soin de.(153) FSM
4

15M - 15
15F - 30
7S - 21
T 66

W - 153
IC - 43
VOC - 203
P - 18
H - 11

WOC - 9
P&C - 46
Det - 18
Pro - 11
Pron - 13

WOC - mère de famille 4, à ce que faisait la mère, appareils electriques, le travail de la mère, souvent, peu nombreuse.

Pron - (1) s'agit (2) vous (3) ___ (4) appareil (5) entretien (6) souvent (7) ___ (8) autrefois (9) famille (10) voir (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) peut-être (14) ___ (15) maintenant (16) ___ (17) pour aider (18) téléphone (19) Il serait . . . autrefois. (20) ___

OS - 8 A 1

p 13
Un orage dans dans le désert ça me fait toujours peur. Quand j'y FS
4 5 1

p p p
pense je vois une une pluie torrentielle qui descend et puis tout MSMM
4

p 28 p
ce sable qui devient détrempé en quelque sorte. Tout devient SFM
5

p p
de la boue et puis c'est peut-être c'est comme un marécage MM
2

p
ou peuvent s'engouffrer toutes les bêtes sauvages qui y MM
5 9

p p 34 p p
vivent s'il y en a. Ce n'est pas très scientifique mais c'est SM

p 15 p
à quoi ça me fait penser. Ca me fait penser aussi à St. M

19 p
Exupéry, son petit et son "Petit Prince." Ce n'est pas MM
2 5

p p
vraiment un orage qu'il y a dans "Le petit prince" mais c'est MSF

25 p
un orage emotionel plus ou moins. Et puis c'est dans le MFM
9 5

11 7
désert loin de tous les hommes. Personne. Le soleil brulant. FM

p p 8
C'est tout c'est tout ce qui nous entoure. (144) S
4

16M - 16	W - 144
5F - 10	IC - 29
6S - 18	VOC - 160
T 44	P - 21
	H - 14

OC - 8 A 1

p p 8
Je suis bien d'accord qu'il ne faut pas dire ne faut pas M
5 2

p p p
rapporter ceux qui trichent mais je crois tout de même que SFM
1

p p
ce n'est pas très juste de voir quelqu'un qui triche et puis MSSM

p 33 p
qui a des notes plus hautes que nous. Nous, nous étudions SFFM
1 1

```
          P                                P            19
nous étudions et puis les résultats sont bien moins bons.          MMM
                     9                  5                1

                         P                    P
Mais dans un autre sens c'est vrai aussi qu'il ne faut             FMM


                         P                              P
que l'atmosphère peut devenir plus tendue mais je je crois que     M
2                 5                                 4

                                  P                   P
vraiment que la justice doit être faite et puis je crois que oui   M
                               9

P                                         P
c'est la meilleure c'est une meilleure idée de dire à celui qui,   MS
   2

  P                          P                    P
triche de de lui dire bien qu'on sait qu'est-ce qui arrive et      S
          4                 9          5

                         P               78       1
puis pourquoi qu'il a des si bonnes notes.  Mais.   (137)          MM
                         5
```

15M - 15

4F - 8

6S - 18

T 41

W - 137

IC - 29

VOC - 139

P - 23

H - 17

VC - 8 A 1

```
   P                 P                      P
On dit toujours que faire du camping c'est c'est d'être            M
                                          4

                          P       P
au paradis mais moi je crois que c'est tout le contraire           M


                        P            P          37
parce que vraiment on est il peut pleuvoir à verse.  Et            SF
       1                         2

                          P                  P
puis soit que le lac est inondé ou bien il fait tellement          M
   1                                        5
```

p 27 p
soleil qu'on on rôtit presque de chaleur. Ou c'est tout le MFM
4

p
contraire, il fait tellement froid,. vingt sous zéro, qu'on MFFS

p 16 p p
gèle. Et puis c'est sans compter les moustiques, les fourmils, M

p
les les les mouches qui peuvent nous dévorer en vie, et même les SFM
4 4

p 38
ours qui peuvent nous visiter pendant la nuit. Et puis je SFM

p p
me souviens aussi une fois d'être d'avoir couché à MF
3

p
Saskatoon avec le train qui passait à deux heures, à trois FSF

38 p
heures, et à quatre heures de la nuit. Et tout ça c'est sans FFM
1

p p
compter qu'il faut se laver dans le lac et puis il y a F
9

p
faut faire faut faire notre dîner sur un feu et puis FM
3 4 9

p 40
salir toutes les casseroles et puis. (173) MM

14M - 14 W - 173
13F - 26 IC - 32
5S - 15 VOC - 196
T 55 P - 25
H - 14

VS - 8 A 1

```
x          0  x        o        8    *     *   p   x        6   x
La journée d'une mère de famille.  Il est il est sept heures. La   FF
                                   1      4                  5

           *   p  6    x    x           o    *         p   *
mère doit se lever.  La première chose qu'elle doit faire je       M

   p  *      o    p     x       o  x       o  o    p     x
crois c'est de mettre le café sur le feu et de prendre une         F

        o       *  p    o      p   32    o        o    *  *
tasse de café; c'est ce qui ravigote.  Et puis après ça on         FMF

     *      p  o          p     x           ox   22   o
peut se laver et puis préparer le déjeuner du mari.  Et puis après,MFMM

*   p     x         o   p    x       15           *  p   x
ça sera notre tour d'avoir un déjeuner.  Ensuite c'est la          SM

         6   *              *        P   x         o        p
vaisselle.  Il faut faire.il faut faire le ménage et puis faire    M
                           4

 x                      x              p    x        o  x
le ménage, quelquefois la lessive, étendre le linge ou le          M
4

          p        *    p                  o  x        41
faire sécher puis le repasser peut-être dans l'après-midi.         MMF

o     o     x  *   *      *     p     ox          o
Et entre tout ça il faut s'occupper des enfants qui doivent        FMS

  p      o    x     19               p    ox      o    p  o
partir pour la classe.  Faut s'occupper du bébé qui crie et        SFS
                                                         1

o   p        *     16    *      *          o    p   x
qui a faim lui aussi.  Il faut s'occupper de faire le souper,      SM

o     p          14
d'écrire peut-être.  (150)                                         M
```

13M - 13
9F - 18
5S - 15
T 46

W - 150
IC - 30
VOC - 171
P - 24
H - 3

WOC - 4
P&C - 27
Det - 21
Pro - 19
Pron - 16

WOC - mère de famille, déjeuner du mari, le faire sécher, le repasser.

Pron - (1) café (2) tout (3) ___ (4) préparer (5) ensuite (6) ensuite
(7) puis (8) doit (9) famille (10) tour (11) vaisselle (12) ___
(13) tout (14) heures (15) faut (16) ___ (17) il est (18) occupper
(19) Il faut . . . midi. (20) ___.

OS - 9 A 1

P
L'auteur de ce sketch a surement oublié de parler de l'effet FM

P 26
que causait la pluie tombante sur le sable. La pluie en SMF

P P
arrivant sur le sable se changeait surement en vapeur d'eau SFMFF

P 30 P
étant donné la haute température des sables. Il a omis aussi SMM
1

P 23
de faire allusion au paratonnerre placé sur le haut des dunes, SFF

P
enfin à mon avis, étant donné que de gros courants d'eau MFSSMF

P P 24
se forment le désert se déplace. Or il ne serait pas sage

p p
de prédire tout ce qui peut arriver lorsqu'un désert se SS
1 5

p 23
déplace. (94)
9

7M - 7
9F - 18
8S - 24
T 49

W - 94
IC - 50
VOC - 126
P - 15
H - 4

OC - 9 A 1

p p p 10 p
Qui dit tricheur, dit menteur, dit voleur. Je ne serais pas

p
d'avis moi non plus de favoriser les rapporteurs car enfin le FS
1 1

p 33
tricheur ne nuit pas à la societé. Et en second lieu eh bien FM

p
d'autre part par l'expérience le tricheur apprendra qu'il est FMF
5 1

p p
plus convenable de travailler par soi-même afin d'arriver à MSFS

43 p
de bons résultats. Il est déplorable toutefois que le tricheur MM
1 1

p 20
en général soit favorisé. Que certains élèves du à un FMS
9 1

p
besoin momentané ait à tricher et immanquablement se fasse MM

p 30 p 6
prendre sur le fait. Je ne sais pas mais tricher. (97) F

8M - 8
7M - 14
4S - 12
T 34

W - 97
IC - 35
VOC - 142
P - 14
H - 8

VC - 9 A 1

p 13
Le camping est un sport très intéressant. Mais par contre F

p p
malgré les économies qu'il nous permet de réaliser je crois FS
9 1

p 29
qu'il nous offre maints inconvénients. En effet tout comme à MFF
1

p
la maison à sur en temps de camping c'est encore la FFM
3 3 1

p p
femme qui doit voir à tout, voir à ce que les enfants soient SS

p p 49
bien habillés pour une journée, je ne sais pas, plutôt froide. FM
1

p 15
Ce qui arrive très souvent malheureusement en camping. De FMMFF

p p
plus c'est encore à la femme qu'il va appartenir de nettoyer M
1

26 p
les chaudrons noircis sur le feu. Et encore qui verra le FFM
1

p p
soir venu à bien organiser chacun de ses enfants dans la FF
1

p 30
tente afin qu'ils n'aient pas. (119)
1

7M - 7
14F - 28
3S - 9
T 44

W - 119
IC - 38
VOC - 162
P - 16
H - 11

VS - 9 A 1

* p o o o p
Je ne suis pas tout à fait en mesure de juger personnellement FSM
1 1

x o x o o o * * p o x
le travail d'une mère de famille mais si je me base sur des FFS

o x * o x * o p o x
témoignages de l'un de mes amis eh bien il va sans dire que la FFS

o x p 59 * * * *
femme à la maison ne fait absolument rien. Je me je me FM
4

p * o P
demande très souvent pourquoi alors elle cherche tant à obtenir FMMM

x o x x 31 o x x x
une égalité dans le niveau social. D'après ce même ami la FMFM
9

p x o p x o o x
femme passerait ses journées à rester assise en face de son SMFF
5

o o p o o p o
poste de télévision, à placoter au téléphone, à jaser de ci FSFSF

o o o p x o p o x
de là, et à perdre son temps à aller courir chez les voisines FSSF

o o p o o x 66 * p
et à parler de d'autres personnes. Il reste toutefois SFM
5

x o x p o x 15
des statistiques qui nous prouve bien que la femme. (130) SM
1

10M - 10

16F - 32

10S - 30

T 72

W - 130

IC - 55

VOC - 171

P - 16

H - 7

WOC - 8

P&C - 36

Det - 20

Pro - 12

Pron - 14

WOC - mère de famille, ne pas, me base, ne fait, me demande, pourquoi elle cherche, niveau social, poste de télévision.

Pron - (1) juger (2) tout (3) ___ (4) demande (5) sans (6) souvent (7) suis (8) témoignage (9) travail (10) dire (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) téléphone (14) ___ (15) temps (16) ___ (17) une égalite (18) absolument (19) D'après . . . personnes. (20) ___

OS - 10 A 1

p 12
Un orage dans le désert est très impressionant. Les éléments FM

p 10 p
se. Les vents se déchênent. Les bêtes sont très sensibles M
7 1 9

p
aux signes précurseurs de l'orage et elles annoncent par la même FMFF

28 p
par leur peur, leur affolement. Les bêtes courent, les
2 9

p p
chameaux crient, les oiseaux volent au ras du sol et soudain la FFM
9 1 9

p 25 p p
pluie s'abat sur le sable. Le et d'entendre l'eau crépiter F
1 2

sur le sol, les les oiseaux vols plus bas à nouveau, les bêtes se FFMF
5 9 4 5

P P 31 P
tapissent, les gens cherchent un abris. C'est un moment de F
9

7 2
panique. Tout le monde. (95)
9

5M - 5	W - 95
11F - 22	IC - 28
OS - 0	VOC - 115
T 27	P - 13
	H - 16

OC - 10 A 1

P 14
Le problème du trichage en classe est souvent soulevé. Les FFM
5

P 14
enfants préfèrent ne pas dénoncer leur camarade. Ils ne veulent

P 13
pas être considéré comme rapporteur. Cependant ils veulent FM

P P 17
donner leçon à cet ami qui a triché. Ils décident de lui faire S
1

P
sentir que cette action était mauvaise, qu'ils ne vont pas

P P P
rapporter mais qu'ils seront prêts à le regarder, à vérifier ces S
1 1

P P
actions et qu'il lui serait lui serait bon qu'il ne recommence pas SS
1 1 4

P
parce que cette fois tous les amis seront contre lui et peut-être SFMSM
1 1 1

P P
décideront-ils finalement de le dénoncer s'il les si c'est vraiment MM
1 1 2

97 p
nécessaire. Les enfants n'aiment pas rapporter parce que ils
1 9 1

p 13
ils le pensent. (115)
4

6M - 6
4F - 8
6S - 18
T 32

W - 115
IC - 28
VOC - 168
P - 16
H - 17

VC - 10 A 1

p 10
Le camping maintenant est très à la mode. Les gens sont prêts MM

p p 18
à partir immediatement, sont très enthousiastes. Il est FMM

p p 13
question d'être au grand air, de vivre librement. Et pour- FMFMM

p p p 14
tant ils arrivent; il pleut mais ça ne fait rien. Tout le M

p 5 p 9
monde est content. Il faut se mettre à couper du bois.

p p
Peut-être la tempête se lève et mais tout le monde garde MM
7

19 p p
un moral assez bon. Ce sont les fourmils qui arrivent, les FMS

p 20
ours. Il est question de faire la cuisine. On est prêt S
1

p p p
à manger de façon très frugale mais c'est égale on est près FFMF
1 1 5

21 p p 7 p
du feu. C'est l'ambiance qui qui importe. On se croit en pleine SFM
4 1

p 21
campagne et pourtant le train passe à quelques kilomètres d'ici. MFMF
1

p 12
On se croit sans les enfants. Et les enfants du. (134) F

14M - 14
10F - 20
3S - 9
T 43

W - 134
IC - 32
VOC - 169
P - 22
H - 9

VS - 10 A 1

x * * p o * p *
Sept heures! Il faut se lever et s'habiller rapidement, se M
1

p o x o x x x x
préparer à faire le déjeuner pour toute la le petit déjeuner
2

o x x 37 x * * p O
pour toute la famille. Les repas il faudra les recommencer à FMF

o x 17 * * x o p 7 x
midi, à cinq heures. C'est c'est la vaisselle à faire. Le ménage FF
4 1

p x x o x x o
aussi est la principale chose que la femme, la mère de famille MFSFF
1 5 2

p o x 25 * p o x
fait pendant sa journée. Elle est interrompue par l'enfant FF

o p o * p 16 * o p x
qui pleure qu'il faut consoler. Il faut penser à faire la SS

o p x o p x 21
lessive, le à aller faire les courses, à nourir les bêtes.
2

x o p x o o p
Très peu de temps elle a très peu de temps pour écouter) MFS
2

x o * * p x o
)la musique mais quelquefois elle elle s'arrête un moment pour) MFS
4

p x 31 * p o o x x o
lire son journal. C'est à peu près le seul moment de liberté FFF

o x p o o o * p x 28
avant que le mari ne rentre à nouveau et qu'elle serve un repas. SFS

* x 5
Elle a aussi les. (146) M

6M - 6
15F - 30
7S - 21
T - 67

W - 146
IC - 46
VOC - 187
P - 21
H - 9

WOC - 1
P&C - 28
Det - 31
Pro - 15
Pron - 15

WOC - mère de famille.

Pron - (1) lever (2) interrompue (3) ___ (4) préparer (5) principale
(6) enfant (7) ___ (8) quelquefois (9) famille (10) très
(11) vaisselle (12) ___ (13) penser (14) heure (15) temps
(16) ___ (17) elle est (18) préparer (19) C'est. . . repas. (20)___

OS - 1 A 2

6 p
Un orage sur le désert. Le désert est la plupart du temps FFF

10 p p 9
calme. Le sable est glisse et il n'y a pas de vent. Mais

p p
cette jour ce jour il y a le ciel lourd et le vent vient FM
3 9

p 21 p
et le soleil ne brille pas. Il y a beaucoup de tonnerre et on on F
4

p 11 p p
a peur. Sur le désert quand il y a un un orage, le sable est le FS
4

19 p 6
plus chose terrible. Quand le vent vient, le sable. (80) FS

1M - 1
7F - 14
2S - 6
T 21

W - 80
IC - 26
VOC - 82
P - 11
H - 4

OC - 1 A 2

p 13
Je ne comprends pas ces ce sujet pour pouvoir répondre. S
4

p p 7 p 5
Je ne sais que c'est un tricheur. Le je ne comprends pas.
9 9 9 9

p p
Jusque je comprends un tricheur est un problème de quelque MFM

p p 23 p
sorte mais je ne sais pas à quoi il rapport. C'est une
9 9

p
problème de la classe, je pense mais de quoi exactement je FM

p 20
ne sais pas. (60)

3M - 3
2F - 4
1S - 3
T 10

W - 60
IC - 17
VOC - 68
P - 12
H - 7

VC - 1 A 2

p p
Le camping est très amusant mais il présente beaucoup de MF

19 p 10
problèmes aussi. Mais c'est toute la partie de la camping. MMF

p p 10
Quand il pleut, on est très inconfortable. Les tentes SM
5 9

p p
laissaient tout le pleuve dans le, mais les canards il n'y a pas MF

20 p
très souvent là. Le froid est aussi inconfortable parce MMMMS

p 20 p
qu'on n'est jamais préparé pour ça. On a jamais on on a MFM
9 4 4

15
jamais beaucoup de vêtements pour cette climat. Le les MFF
3

10
alimentations de la camping. (80) F

12M - 12
7F - 7
2S - 6
T 32

W - 80
IC - 40
VOC - 114
P - 10
H - 6

VS - 1 A 2

p p
D'abord elle réveille à sept heures du matin et elle faire sa FF

p p
toilette et elle s'habille et après ça elle va préparer le F
5 5

38 p ox
déjeuner pour sa famille. Quand son mari est allé au son FSF

p p
>bureau elle elle a son petit déjeuner et après ça elle nettoie MF
4

31 p p
la cuisine. Quand elle l'a finie, ça c'est la (tourne) de SF
5 3

x x p 15 p
la chat à manger la chat à manger.Et après ça elle nettoie les SFF
4

p 13
chambres, elle fait les lits. Plus tard plus tard dans le matin FFF
1 4

p 13
elle lave les vêtements. (90)

1M - 1
12F - 24
3S - 9
T 34

W - 90
IC - 38
VOC - 110
P - 12
H - 8

WOE - 2
P&C - 2
Det - 2
Pro - 0
Pron - 16

Pron - (1) déjeuner (2) bureau (3) ___ (4) réveille (5) quand (6) vêtements (7) cuisine (8) toilette (9) habille (10) abord (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) tard (14) heures (15) tard (16) ___ (17) elle a (18) préparer (19) Quand . . . cuisine. (20) chat à

OS - 2 A 2

6 p 9
Un orage dans le désert. A six heures du matin tout est calme. FFF

p p p 12
Les animaux restent ou font ce qu'ils font toujours. Soudain MM

p 6 p 6 p
il y a du vent. Le sable est toute mêle. Le soleil disparait M

9 p 7
complètement. Tous tous les animaux sont (confusés). Le MMM
4

P
l'orage reste (lasts) depuis seulement un peu de un FM
4 1 9 4

15
peu de secondes. (57) F

7M - 7

5F - 10

OS - 0

T 17

W - 57

IC - 30

VOC - 73

P - 9

H - 5

OC - 2 A 2

P
Les tricheurs dans une classe présente présente quelquefois un très FMM
4

17 P P
grand problème. Les autres enfants ne sait pas ou les ignorer MM

P 15 P
ou les suivre. Une salle de classe est un petit groupe très FMFM
1 1

P 22
organisé et très (well) mais ce sont toutes les grands amis. MMMM
1

P
Il est possible seulement d'un coup d'oeil d'arrêter les MFF

P P P 23
traceurs de font le je ne sais pas quoi dire. Je
5 9 9

P 6
ne connais pas les mots. (68)
1

11M - 11

5F - 10

OS - 0

T 21

W - 68

IC - 32

VOC - 83

P - 11

H - 8

VC - 2 A 2

p 9 p 7
Etes-vous jamais allé au camping? Cela est très amusant. Il MFM

p p
y a le vent qui met le sable dans les lits, dans vos vos vêtements SFF
4

19 p p
et comme ça. Il y a beaucoup de d'ours qui mangent vos votre vos FFS
4 3 3

13 p p 13
repas. Il y a la fumée du feu qui est dans dans vos yeux. Les FF
9 4

p p
trains passent et vous ne pouvez pas dormir du tout, pas du FF
2

16 p 6
tout. Puis il y a vos voisins. (75)

2M - 2
9F - 18
2S - 6
T 26

W - 75
IC - 34
VOC - 83
P - 11
H - 7

VS - 2 A 2

p ox p
Il est six heures moins cinq au matin. La mère de de famille FFF
4

p 9 p
faut se lever. D'abord elle lave elle se lave la figure F
1 2

p p 22
puis elle se brosse les dents puis elle peigne les cheveux. MM

p
Après cela elle mettre sa robe et ses souliers et maintenant FM

o p 26
elle est prête de faire un repas pour son mari. D'abord elle FF

p p
met le café sur le feu et parce que son mari aime beaucoup FSM

x p 29
des oeufs elle prépare elle lui prépare une omelette.
2

3
Puis après. (84) M

SM - 8
SF - 16
1S - 3
T 27

W - 84
IC - 31
VOC - 95
P - 10
H - 4

WOE - 0
P&C - 2
Det - 2
Pro - 1
Pron - 13

Pron - (1) lever (2) beaucoup (3) ___ (4) café (5) maintenant (6) dents (7) puis (8) ___ (9) famille (10) sur (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) café (14) heures (15) met (16) ___ (17) il est (18) ___ (19) Après . . . mari. (20) ___

OS - 3 A 2

p 7 p
C'était un orage terrible. Le vent était. Le le soleil M
9 7 4

p p 16 p
est disparait et et il pleut. Les hommes qui sont dehors est S
5 4 5

p 12 p
est allé chez lui. Ce n'est pas possible de rester dehors. FSM
1 1 9

p
Mais cet orage ne ne reste longtemps et enfin le soleil est MM
9 4 1 9

p 19
retourné. (47)
9

4M - 4	W - 47
1F - 2	IC - 25
2S - 6	VOC - 64
T 12	P - 9
	H - 14

OC - 3 A 2

Les petit actions d'une professeur et des étudiants dans une MFFF

p 22 p
classe sont très importants. Chaque membre de la classe est MF

11 p
aussi un membre d'une (communité). Ces membres doit coopérer M

p 15
pour pour être possible de travailler. Il est très facile SSM
4 9 9

p 13 p
d'arrêter cette cooperation. Il faut que que le professeur S
9 9 4

p 20 p
garder le les opinions de ces étudiantes. Il faut que que F
3 5 4

6
tous les. (63)

4M - 4	W - 63
5F - 10	IC - 36
3S - 9	VOC - 87
T 23	P - 8
	H - 9

VC - 3 A 2

p p 13
On a beaucoup de problèmes quand on fait le camping. Je FS

p p 10 p
crois que le plus sérieuse est le temps. Le camping est bon FM

p p
quand il fait bon mais beaucoup de temps il pleut ou même il SFFM

p 20 p 6 p
neige. Aussi il y a le vent. Et le temps n'est pas le même M
9

11 p
qu'à la maison. Il y a aussi les problèmes des animaux, FMF

22
des petit insectes, des animaux plus grandes. Et même si si le FMFFM
9 4

p p p
temps est bon et le le place du camp est bon, il y a les F
1 4

23 p
problèmes de gens. Il est difficile pour pour quelques gens FFM
5 4

p 15
d'habiter une place. (104) F

7M - 7
13F - 26
2S - 6
T 39

W - 104
IC - 37
VOC - 120
P - 15
H - 7

VS - 3 A 2

p 10 p
La pauvre mère de famille, son jour est plein. Elle a trop MF
1

o p p p
de choses de faire. Si elle a une famille, il faut qu'elle lui FFS
9 9 9

* p p p x
aider à réveiller, il faut qu'elle préparer son petit déjeuner M
9 9 9

```
                                                o     p
et puis quand elle seule, elle doit commencer de ménager la       MS
   1

     52        p                          p
maison.  Il y a aussi des des mères qui ont les petits des         S
                          4                                2

   x                 *                      p            x
petit enfants chez lui et même quelle qui ont les les petit       MFMSM
                                                  4

          x  31
animaux, bons.   (75)
```

6M - 6

4F - 8

4S - 12

T 26

W - 75

IC - 35

VOC - 93

P - 12

H - 11

WOE - 1

P&C - 2

Det - 3

Pro - 4

Pron - 16

WOE - bons

Pron - (1) si (2) animaux (3) ___ (4) préparer (5) commencer (6) commencer (7) puis (8) doit (9) famille (10) jour (11) aussi (12) ___ (13) qu'elle (14) ___ (15) trop (16) ___ (17) elle a (18) préparer (19) Si . . . maison. (20) jour est

OS - 4 A 2

```
     p          4                                       p
Il est six heures.  Des chameaux et des antilopes se reste
9                 1                               1

      12                                         10
un peu.  Puis le premier première signe d'un orage.  Il           FMMF
      9                 3          5

  p                           9       p
y a la poussière sur l'horizon.  Il faut que les animaux           F
   1                          1

  p              11                     5
cherchent des abris.  Il commence à pleut.  Il commence à
                   1                      2
```

p 12 p 6
pleuvoir avec des gouttes énormes. Les chameaux s'agenouillent.(53) M
9 1 5 9

3M - 3 W - 53

3F - 6 IC - 17

OS - 0 VOC - 69

T 9 P - 7

H - 14

OC - 4 A 2

p 5 p
Une classe est comme une (communité). Quand il y a des rapports, FS
5 9 9

p 14
les autres n'aiment pas les rapporteurs. (18)
9

OM - 0 W - 18

1F - 2 IC - 27

1S - 3 VOC - 19

T 5 P - 3

H - 4

VC - 4 A 2

p 8 p p
Le camping n'est pas amusant. Peut-être il pleut et il faut
1 9 9

p 16 p p 6
que vous nagez comme un canard. S'il neige, vous gèlerai. Il FS
9 9 1 9

p p 13 p
fait du vent et la tente et vous perdez la tente. Il y a
2 9

14
beaucoup d'ours et d'autres animaux dans la forêt. Vous ne FFF
9 9

p p 12
pouvez pas dormir parce qu'il y a une train. (60) S
9

OM - 0

4F - 8

2S - 6

T 14

W - 60

IC - 23

VOC - 69

P - 11

H - 12

VS - 4 A 2

```
                                                  p
A sept heures du matin la mère de famille se lève, elle se          FFF
                      9                           9

p                p   20          p                  p
lave, et elle s'habille.  Elle met un tablier et commence à
     9                                                   9

 p                   16                                  p
faire le petit déjeuner.  Après le petit déjeuner elle dit          FM
                        9

                            p                 23         p
aurevoir à son mari et puis elle fait la vaisselle.  Elle fait      M
         9         9                          1

        6                  p
le nettoyage.  Après ça elle lave le plancher et après le           FF
 5                                            9        9

déjeuner elle joue avec le bébé et.   (65)                          F
                                9
```

2M - 2

7F - 14

0S - 0

T 16

W - 65

IC - 25

VOC - 87

P - 11

H - 12

WOE - 0

P&C - 0

Det - 0

Pro - 0

Pron - 16

Pron - (1) tablier (2) joue (3) ___ (4) commence (5) plancher (6) commence
(7) puis (8) aurevoir (9) habille (10) mari (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) tablier (14) heure (15) et (16) ___ (17) dit aurevoir
(18) aurevoir (19) Après . . . vaisselle. (20) déjeuner elle

OS - 5 A 2

5 p
L'orage du désert. Il est tranquil mais lentement quelques FMM
1

p 15 p
signes de l'orage arrive. Le vent devient pire et le ciel F
9 1 9

p 11 p
devient noir. Le vent devient très fort et nos vêtements est M
9 9 9 9 1

12
près. (34)

3M - 3

2F - 4

OS - 0

T 7

W - 34

IC - 21

VOC - 43

P - 5

H - 9

OC - 5 A 2

p
Les élèves dans la salle de classe est comme une (community) FF
1 1 9 1

p 25
et ces élèves doivent préserver leur solidarité. Dans toutes, FM
1 1 1

p 6 p 2
les choses qu'ils font. C'est tout. (27) S
1 9

1M - 1

3F - 6

1S - 3

T 10

W - 27

IC - 37

VOC - 33

P - 4

H - 9

VC - 5 A 2

6 p 8
Les problèmes du camping. Le premier problème est le temps. FM
1 1 1 1

p p 13 p
Quand vous désirez aller le temps ne fait pas beau; il pleut S
1 9 1

p p 9 p
ou il neige; il fait du vent. Puis il y a du de problème des
1 3

p
insectes, des pestes, des animaux qui descend dans l'endroit SF
1 9 9

p 28
où vous vous êtes situé. (52) S
9

1M - 1
2F - 4
3S - 9
T 14

W - 52
IC - 27
VOC - 64
P - 9
H - 13

VS - 5 A 2

8 p
La journée d'une mère de famille. Une mère de famille est FFF
1 9

p
une personne complexe et elle a elle doit avoir beaucoup de MF
9 1 2

24 *
talents. D'abord dans une journée il faut qu'elle il MF
1 1 3

p 23
doit se lever de bonne heure, peut-être à six heures. Elle FMMF
1 1 1 1

p p 10
se lave et elle fait du café puis. (53) M
1

5M - 5
7F - 14
0S - 0
T 19

W - 53
IC - 35
VOC - 65
P - 5
H - 13

WOE - 0
P&C - 0
Det - 0
Pro - 1
Pron - 14

Pron - (1) journée (2) beaucoup (3) ___ (4) d'abord (5) talent (6) talent
(7) puis (8) doit (9) famille (10) journée (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) personne (14) heures (15) beaucoup (16) ___ (17) elle a
(18) ___ (19) Une mère . . . talents. (20) ___

OS - 6 A 2

```
                     p                     10                p
Tout est calme tout est calme dans le désert.  Les Arabes mangent  F
              4

      p           p                         p              19
et bavard et pensent que ce qu'ils vont faire après le diner.     F
         9              1                    1

                                  p                       p
Soudainement un vent terrible parait et le sable est éparpillé    M
            9        9        9      9          9

               21
partout dans les.   (38)                                          M
       9         1
```

2M - 2

2F - 4

OS - 0

T 6

W - 38

IC - 16

VOC - 50

P - 7

H - 11

OC - 6 A 2

```
                    p                                          p
A mon avis faut laisser les les les tricheurs seuls pour les montre  FMF
               1           4   4                   1    1

                     p
que que la classe n'aime pas ce qu'il ce qu'il ce qu'il
   4             9                          4        4

           p  28                      p
ce qu'il faisent mais peut-être ce n'est pas la meilleure solution  M
  4                  1         1               5

                      p
mais peut-être ça dépend dans d'un de plusieurs choses pour         M
    1                         3      3                1
```

p 34 p 5
traiter quelque chose comme ceci. Peut-être il faut être. (62) MF
1 1 5

4M - 4
3F - 6
0F - 0
T 10

W - 62
IC - 16
VOC - 67
P - 8
H - 20

VC - 6 A 2

p 4 p p
J'aime le camping. Quand j'étais un Boy Scout, j'en ai fait S
1

11 p
beaucoup mais j'aime le camping beau plus pendant FM
1 1 1 3 1 1

p
l'été parce que dans l'hiver il fait trop chaud pour moi mais SFMF

aussi dans dans l'été il y a trop de trop de moustiques et mouches MFF
4 5 4

p 43 p p
qui m'ennuient. Mais j'aime bien être dans la forêt et écoute SMF
1 1 1

p p
les oiseaux chante et voir les corneilles et les lapins et
1 1 1 5

42
tous les animaux et reptiles dans leur habitat naturel mais. (86) MFM
1 1 1

6M - 6
7F - 14
3S - 9
T 29

W - 86
IC - 34
VOC - 100
P - 10
H - 20

VS - 6 A 2

p p 10
Il est six heures moins cinq; le réveil sonne. Madame F

p p 9 p
Thibaut se lève et se lave. Après elle se brosse les dents M
1 1

11 p p
et les cheveux. Après elle elle s'habille et fait et M
1 1 4 9

p x
prépare le petit déjeuner pour son mari, deux oeufs et et le MFF
2 4

27 p p 14
pain. Quand son quand son mari part, il dit aurevoir à la porte. SF
4 1 9

p p
Après après elle elle mange lui elle-même et elle lave
4 4 3 9

p p 23 1
les il y a beaucoup de choses à faire. Elle. (79) FS
7 1

3M - 3

5F - 10

2S - 6

T 19

W - 79

IC - 24

VOC - 95

P - 14

H - 17

WOE - 0

P&C - 0

Det - 1

Pro - 0

Pron - 14

Pron - (1) mari (2) Thibaut (3) ___ (4) madame (5) mange (6) dents (7) lui (8) aurevoir (9) habille (10) heures (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) petit (14) heure (15) dent (16) ___ (17) il est (18) aurevoir (19) ___ (20) ___

OS - 7 A 2

p p
Il est noir dans le dortoir mais j'entends (cock-a-doodle doo) F

p 18 p
qui vient d'un animal au cour. Oui, il est six heures et SFF

p
demie le matin et moi, je suis en Afrique au Dahomey, un petit› FFFM
1

p 33 p
pays où j'ai passé toute l'été. C'est il est l'heure de › SMFS
1 2 9 1

p p 21
›se lever et de préparer pour le travail pour la journée. SFF
9 1 9

p
Je vois le le soleil, bien seulement les les couleurs dans le MM
9 4 9 4

p p 27
ciel et je sais que le soleil vient tout de suite. (84) F
5

4M - 4

10F - 20

3S - 9

T 33

W - 84

IC - 39

VOC - 99

P - 12

H - 13

OC - 7 A 2

p p
Je me souviens quand j'étais plus jeune, le huitième grade, SMF
1

p p 24
y avait une jeune fille qui s'appelait Marie. Elle ne ne pouvait S
1 4

p p
pas faire ses ses problèmes dans les mathématiques et moi j'étais F
4 5

p p
capable, alors elle a a emprunté mon cahier pour copier ces MS
4

40 p 9 p
problèmes. Moi, je me je me fâchais de ça. Je n'aimais
2

p
pas parce que moi j'ai fait le travail et elle, elle elle n'a pas, SS
4

p 14 p
,fait. C'est une sorte de tricheuse parce que le professeur, FS
1

p p 22
,ne savait pas ce qu'elle ce qu'elle faisait. (96)
4

2M - 2

3F - 6

6S - 18

T 26

W - 96

IC - 27

VOC - 114

P - 15

H - 10

VC - 7 A 2

p
Un jour au camp des jeunes filles C.G.I.T qui est un groupe FFFFS
5

p
dans l'église United Church nous avons fait une promenade FF
1

p
autour du de du petit lac et moi j'ai décide de faire FM
3 3 1 1

p
une plaisanterie parce que ma mère était le la directrice du SF
1 1 3

p p
camp et j'ai j'ai fait la (prétense) d'avoir tombé sur la route et F
9 1 4 1 9 1

p p
les Boy Scouts qui étaient à l'autre coté du lac m'ont fait SF
1

94
un (sling) sur mon. (79)
1

1M - 1
10F - 20
3S - 9
T 30

W - 79
IC - 38
VOC - 94
P - 8
H - 17

VS - 7 A 2

p 12
Ma mère fait beaucoup de choses pendant la journée. Elle se FF

p p
lève vers sept heures avec mon père et elle prépare le petit FFM
1

18 p p
déjeuner. Après ça il y a du ménage à faire et à onze heures FSF
1 1

p p
elle elle va au village pour pour lire le courier. FS
4 9 4

27 p o p
tout ça. Aussi elle va à la ville parce qu'elle est la secré- MFS
1 9

16
taire du village. Et elle a a des choses des choses F
4 4

p 12 p 9 p
à faire là-bas. À midi elle prépare le repas. Elle est un SFF
1 1

8
bon cuisinier. Le. (86) M
9 1

3M - 3
11F - 22
4S - 12
T 37

W - 86
IC - 43
VOC - 102
P - 12
H - 14

WOE - 0
P&C - 1
Det - 0
Pro - 0
Pron - 11

Pron - (1) journée (2) beaucoup (3) ___ (4) ménage (5) pendant (6) pendant
(7) cuisinier (8) ___ (9) ___ (10) faire (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) parce que (14) heure (15) repas (16) ___ (17) elle est
(18) secrétaire (19) Après ça . . . tout ça. (20) ___

OS - 8 A 2

p 14
Tous les gens et tous les chameaux dans le désert ont peur. MMF

p p 13
Peut-être ils ils sent qu'il qu'il y aura un orage. Le soleil M
4 4 1

p p 11
disparait et le vent se lève. Tout le sable tout le sable MM
4

p p 14 p
vole en faisant des cercles dans l'air. Les vêtements collent SF

12
à le peau de des gens et le. (57) FF
3 1

5M - 5
4F - 8
1S - 3
T 16

W - 57
IC - 28
VOC - 64
P - 8
H - 5

OC - 8 A 2

p
La tricherie est un véritable problème dans n'importe quelle MFF
5 9

18 p
salle de classe. Parfois un tricheur peut encourager les FM
1

p 23
autres étudiants à suivre ce le a suivre le même (Je ne sais pas M
3 2 1

```
              p    8
comment exprimer).    (34)
                   1
```

3M - 3

3F - 6

OS - 0

T 9

W - 34

IC - 27

VOC - 49

P - 4

H - 7

VC - 8 A 2

```
  p
Il a beaucoup de problèmes qui peut qui peut se pose,                  FS
                            5     4

                         p                 p
se poser qui peuvent poser aux gens qui qui allaient                   S
      3          3       1              4           9

     26                                      p       p
camping.  Peut-être  les abeilles peut arriver pour piquer les,        MS
      1           1                                1

                                                           p    27
,campeurs ou peut-être les les sauterelles peut peut arriver.          M
                          4                    4               1

                      p                           12
Parfois les temps ne sont pas beaux et les campeurs.   (49)            M
                              9     5             1
```

3M - 3

1F - 2

3S - 9

T 14

W - 49

IC - 29

VOC - 65

P - 7

H - 16

VS - 8 A 2

```
            p                   p   9         p
La montre sonne et maman se réveille.  Elle se lève et puis            M
                                            1

           p                  14           p
elle se lave dans le lavabo.  Elle prend sa brosse à dent et           FF
                                          5
```

* p p p
elle brosse les dents puis elle se peigne et elle s'habille. M
1 1

p p p 11
Elle met elle prend une jolie jupe et elle s'habille. M
2

p p 12
Puis elle prend ses chaussures et elle est presque toute prête. MMM
5

p p
Elle entre dans la salle de elle entre dans la cuisine et FF
2

p 16
elle elle fait cuire. (74)
4

6M - 6
4F - 8
OS - 0
T 14

W - 74
IC - 35
VOC - 81
P - 16
H - 8

WOE - 0
P&C - 0
Det - 0
Pro - 1
Pron - 14

Pron - (1) et (2) lavabo (3) ___ (4) réveille (5) dent (6) prend
(7) cuisine (8) ___ (9) habille (10) brosse (11) chaussure
(12) ___ (13) toute (14) habille (15) met (16) ___ (17) elle est
(18) ___ (19) Elle prend . . . s'habille. (20) ___

OS - 9 A 2

5 p 3
L'orage des déserts. Je ne sais pas. (8) F
5 5 1 9

0M - 0
1F - 2
OS - 0
T 2

W - 8
IC - 25
VOC - 8
P - 1
H - 4

OC - 9 A 2

p
S'il y a un étudiant tricheuse dans la classe les autres SMFM
1 4 1

p 23 p
étudiants n'écoutent pas au professeur. Peut-être ils jouent M
5 1

p
avec le tricheur et peut-être ils ils n' n'écoutent ils n'écoutent FM
5 5 4 4

26 p
qu'aux tricheurs et pas à le professeur. Le professeur peut dire
1 9

p 14
aux aux tricheuses d'écouter peut-être. (53) M
4 9

5M - 5 W - 53

2F - 4 IC - 23

1S - 3 VOC - 63

T 12 P - 6

H - 13

VC - 9 A 2

p 7
Tout le monde aime faire le camping. Souvent quand nous MMS
1 1 1

p p p 19
faisons du du camping, il fait du vent ou peut-être il pleut. M
4 1

p p
Le canard est très content quand il pleut mais ceux qui ceux qui MSS
5 4

p 23 p
fait du camping n'aiment pas la pluie. Souvent il y a des mousti- M
4 1 9

7 p 14
ques. Souvent on ne peut pas dormir à cause à cause des bruits.(61) MF
9 5 5 4

6M - 6
1F - 2
3S - 9
T 17

W - 61
IC - 28
VOC - 70
P - 10
H - 13

VS - 9 A 2

p 14
La mère de famille se lève à sept heures de du matin. Elle se FFF
1 3

p p p
lave la figure, elle se brosse les dents, elle s'habille, puis M
5 1

p 24 p
elle prépare la petite déjeuner. Elle envoie son mari au MF

p
bureau et ses enfants à l'école puis elle mange sa petite FMM

o x x p 36
déjeuner mais sa petite déjeuner est déja froid. Elle MM

p p
elle nettoie la cuisine et elle elle elle fait le
4 4 4

13 p p 11
ménage. Elle balaie les planchers et elle lave le linge. λ. (78)
9

6M - 6
5F - 10
0S - 0
T 16

W - 78
IC - 21
VOC - 99
P - 12
H - 8

WOE - 0
P&C - 6
Det - 0
Pro - 0
Pron - 15

Pron - (1) planchers (2) bureau (3) ___ (4) prépare (5) envoie (6) envoie (7) puis (8) envoie (9) famille (10) prépare (11) brosse (12) ___

(13) petite (14) heures (15) dents (16) ___ (17) elle envoie

(18) ___ (19) Elle . . . déjeuner. (20) ___

OS - 10 A 2

p p
Je n'ai pas su que il y avait des des orages dans dans le F
1 4

p p
désert mais si un arrivait arriverait je crois qu'il ne
2 1

p
durerait trop longtemps et ce serait il serait possible FM
1 2

p
de de se cacher près de d'un des chameaux ou même de FF
4 1 4 1 1

p p
de de de rester dehors car les les orages ne sont pas MS
4 4 4 1 9

72
toujours. (59) M
1

3M - 3

4F - 8

1S - 3

T 14

W - 59

IC - 24

VOC - 72

P - 9

H - 19

OC - 10 A 2

p
Je me demande pourquoi pourquoi essayer de de
1 4 4

p p
décourager les tricheurs. Moi je chercherais plutôt de de
4

la raison des difficultés ou la source des problèmes. Si on FF
2 5

p p
n'est pas heureux, content dans une classe, y a peut-être des FM
9 3

difficultés ça des manques chez le professeur ou des F
1

86
problèmes individuels des des élèves et personnellement. (56) MFM
8 4 9 1

3M - 3
5F - 10
0S - 0
T 13

W - 56
IC - 23
VOC - 86
P - 5
H - 13

VC - 10 A 2

p
Ces images-ci nous présentent une image de de du F
1 5 1 4 3

p
camping avec beaucoup de difficultés mais ce sont tous les toutes FFMM
3

p 42 p
les possibilités, et c'est exagéré. Quand je vais faire du S
1 9 4

p p
camping moi je vais à à la montagne c'est à dire aux FF
1 5 4

p p 36
Rocheuses et oui c'est possible que qu'il va pleuvoir que. (56)
1 3 1 1

2M - 2
5F - 10
1S - 3
T 15

W - 56
IC - 27
VOC - 78
P - 8
H - 16

VS - 10 A 2

p x
En général je crois qu'une mère de famille des mères de FFF
1 1 1 1

p
famille font toujours presque la même chose pendant toute la MMMFM

29 p
journée. Mais je voudrais parler au sujet des des femmes qui S
1 1 4

p 15 p
travaillent. Le soir elle se lève comme d'habitude FF
1 8

p p
d'habitude et fait leur toilette et je pense que c'est ce
2

p p
sont les hommes, les maris qui qui préparent les le petit M
4 3

40
déjeuner et. (68)
1

4M - 4
5F - 10
1S - 3
T 17

W - 68
IC - 25
VOC - 84
P - 9
H - 13

WOE - 0
P&C - 1
Det - 0
Pro - 0
Pron - 13

Pron - (1) qui (2) au (3) ___ (4) travaillent (5) font (6) pendant (7) ___ (8) crois (9) famille (10) journée (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) qui (14) habitude (15) font (16) ___ (17) ___ (18) général (19) En . . . journée. (20) ___

OS - 1 B 2

p 11
L'orage a des regards sont beaux dur et fort. Le le MMM
1 1 9 9 1 1 1 4

p p
vent il fait du vent et les les feuilles tombent par terre F
2 1 1 4 9 9

p p 25
et puis la la neige vient et il fait très froid. Et les MM
4 9

p p
les peuples qui sont dehors vient très froid et quelque MMM
4

p 20 p
fois les mains sont gelées. C'est c'est l'hiver quand S
1 9 9 4

p 12
l'orage est dehors et il. (64) M
9 1

9M - 9

1F - 2

1S - 3

T 14

W - 64

IC - 22

VOC - 68

P - 10

H - 23

OC - 1 B 2

p p
Après être entré dans la classe il y a beaucoup de choses à FFS
1

p 16 p
faire. Nous commençons par regardant le professeur et nous nous
1 1 9 1 1 4

p 18 p
l'écoutons. Il dit quelque chose de la leçon pour le jour FF
1 1

p 23
et puis nous commençons à lire dans le texte. Le professeur MF
9

p p 12 p
nous nous corrige quand nous lisons. Quelquefois c'est un SF
4 5 1 1

6 p 8
peu (distractant). Quelquefois nous sommes fâchés mais. (62) M
1 1 1 9

2M - 2
6F - 12
1S - 3
T 17

W - 62
IC - 28
VOC - 83
P - 11
H - 18

VC - 1 B 2

p p
C'est l'été et quand notre famille prend prenons nos vacances, S
1 9 4 1 5

p 24 p
il il nous arrive beaucoup de problèmes. Il y a quatre F
4 9 9 9

p
garçons dans son famille et toujours notre voiture est trop FMM
1 9 9 9 9

18 p
court. Les bagages il y a pas de (room) pour les bagages F
2 1

p 25 p
et cependant nous arrivons à notre destination. C'est MF
1 9 9

p 15
à Banff et et il y a des animaux de de forêts. Le nous F
4 4 3

p p 16
demeurons par terre et il fait froid à Banff en été et. (78) MFF

4M - 4
7F - 14
1S - 3
T 21

W - 78
IC - 27
VOC - 98
P - 11
H - 18

VS - 1 B 2

p p
C'est le matin et la mère la mère se réveiller à sept F
1 4 1

16 p p
heures. Elle fait sa toilette et fait fait le café pour le F
4 1 1

21 p
déjeuner pour sa famille. Son mari va au bureau et l'élève FF
9 9 1

p p 21
son enfant qui est élève va à l'école. Après le petit SFFM
2 9 9

p p
déjeuner elle fait la vaisselle et commencer à faire le
1 9

22 p p
ménage. C'est un jour comme toujours et il faut jouer avec FF
9 1 9

17
le bébé et. (74)
1

1M - 1	W - 74	WOE - 0
8F - 16	IC - 23	P&C - 0
OS - 0	VOC - 97	Det - 0
T 17	P - 11	Pro - 0
	H - 18	Pron - 15

Pron - (1) réveiller (2) bureau (3) ___ (4) commencer (5) commencer (6) commencer (7) ___ (8) toilette (9) famille (10) après (11) vaiselle (12) ___ (13) petit (14) heures (15) enfant (16) ___ (17) c'est un (18) réveiller (19) Elle . . . famille. (20) ___

OS - 2 B 2

p 10 p
Six heures du matin. Tout la maison dorme. Je me lève et FM
9

p 12 p 5
je et je sorte de la maison. Dehors tout est (dormi) aussi. MM
4 9 1

p 5 p
[illegible] n'y a pas de bruit. Ensuite je m'écoute que mon que M
5 4

p 11 p p 10
mon père se lève. Il vient avec moi. Nous marchons un peu. F
9 9

p
Nous parle des choses comme le le le matin, la gloire de le FF
9 4 4 9

18
Dieu de de Dieu. (66)
4

4M - 4

4F - 8

OS - 0

T 12

W - 66

IC - 18

VOC - 71

P - 10

H - 13

OC - 2 B 2

p p 16
Je pense que cette garçon veut attention et responsabilité.
9

p p
Peut-être si le professeur lui donne quelque chose à faire il SMMS

p 20
il la classe va mieux. Peut-être si elle lui SM
4 2

p p 16
demande des questions, il il serait heureuse. Peut-être M
4 5

p
si le professeur lui demander s'arrange arranger la classe S
5 1 1 3

p
peut-être prenne ramasser les feuilles de papier, une M
3

p p
petite chose à faire, il c'est un problème. (64) MS
7

6M - 6
0F - 0
4S - 12
T 18

W - 64
IC - 28
VOC - 92
P - 11
H - 11

VC - 2 B 2

p p 15
Quand on va au camping il ne faut il ne fait jamais beau. SM
2 9

p p 10
Il peut-être il pleut, peut-être il fait froid. Surtout MM
2

p p
le le vent. Il y a il y a toujours des insectes qui vous piquent MS
4 4 1

p
et je vous comme dans un parc il y a toujours beaucoup beaucoup M
1 4

38 p 8
de gens, beaucoup de bruit. Vous ne pouvez pas dorme dormir. FF
7 3

p p
Vous vous aurez beaucoup de problèmes mais c'est ceci
4

p p 28
qui fait que fait qui fait le camping. Si vous voulez manger. (83)
2 2 1

5M - 5
2F - 4
2S - 6
T 15

W - 83
IC - 18
VOC - 99
P - 12
H - 14

VS - 2 B 2

x p 13 *
Six heures du matin, la mère de la famille se lève. Elle FFF
9 1

p * p p p
lave, elle brosse les dents, elle se peigne, elle s'habille,

18 p
tout dans dans dix minutes. Après elle doit appeler son mari MFM
4 5

p
et ensuite préparer préparer le petit déjeuner par MM
8 4 1

exemple le le café du café, du pain du pain du FF
4 2 4 4

47 p *
pain grillé, peut-être des oeufs. Son mari vient et il MMF
1

o 13 p
il il manger tout de suite. Après elle manger et elle FFM
4 4

p 11 p 8
lave les les tasses. Ensuite elle range l'apartement. (93) M
4

8M - 8

9F - 18

OS - 0

T 26

W - 93

IC - 26

VOC - 110

P - 12

H - 15

WOE - 0

P&C - 0

Det - 1

Pro - 2

Pron - 16

Pron - (1) mari (2) tout (3) ___ (4) préparer (5) dans (6) dents
(7) ensuite (8) doit (9) famille (10) mère (11) tasse (12) ___
(13) tout (14) heure (15) dents (16) ___ (17) par exemple
(18) appeler (19) Elle . . . minutes. (20) ___

OS - 3 B 2

p 6 p
Je demeure au désert. Ce n'est pas terrible au désert comme comme FFF
9 1 9 9 4

p 13 p p
vous pensez. Mais ce matin mardi quand je me lève, il il y a un MS
1 4 9

21 p
orage au désert dehors. Le sable il fait du vent et le FM
5 2

12
sable (was scattered all over) tout partout. Les chameaux FM
1 5 9

p p
qui restent dehors pour la nuit ne sont ne ne n'ont pas de SF
9 2 4 4

19
place de. (61)
9

3M - 3

6F - 12

2S - 6

T 21

W - 61

IC - 34

VOC - 71

P - 8

H - 18

OC - 3 B 2

p p
Je n'ai pas comprend le (topic) mais je pense que vous
5 1

p p 21
que vous veux que vous voulez que je parle. Maintenant M
4 2

p 5 p p 12
je parle. Je ne sais pas ce que de dire à ce moment. Je F
9 9 9

p p p
je veux que j'espère que mes mots vous aidez dans votre
4 2 9

17 p 6
recherche mais (I have doubt). Je ne peux pas penser. (54)
9 1 9

1M - 1
1F - 2
OS - 0
T 3

W - 54
IC - 6
VOC - 61
P - 11
H - 13

VC - 3 B 2

P P P
J'aime beaucoup le camping mais c'est mais le camping a M
2

18 P 8
beaucoup de hasards. Le premier problème est le temps. Le FM
1 9 1

P P
camping est bon quand vous quand vous avez le le temps S
4 4

14 P 11
beau. Mais quelquefois le temps ne n'est pas bon beau. Un M
9 4 3

P P
jour un jour le temps il peut pleut; un jour il fait
4 9 3

P P
du vent et vous et vous ne saurez jamais que le temps fait M
9 4 9 9

beau tout le temps quand vous quand vous sont quand vous faites FS
2 2

43 5
du camping. Un autre hasard. (86)

4M - 4
2F - 4
2S - 6
T 14

W - 86
IC - 16
VOC - 99
P - 12
H - 18

VS - 3 B 2

p 9 p
Une mère est une femme très très pressée. Elle se lève FM
4

p
le matin elle se lève de bonne heure le matin et puis elle FFM
2 9

p 27 p
doit lever leurs enfants leurs enfants. Il faut préparer
9 1 4 9

le petit le petit déjeuner pour les enfants et pour MF
4

25 p
et pour le mari. Et puis quand les élèves va à l'école, FMSF
4 9

p o 23
elle doit faire le le ménage de petit déjeuner. Après ça MF
5 4

p o p 16
elle doit fait les lits et elle commence de faire le mémage. (79)
1 9 9

5M - 5	W - 79	WOE - 0
7F - 14	VOC - 100	P&C - 2
1S - 3	IC - 27	Det - 0
T 22	P - 9	Pro - 0
	H - 15	Pron - 14

Pron - (1) pressée (2) faut (3) ___ (4) préparer (5) enfants (6) enfants
(7) puis (8) doit (9) ___ (10) pour (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) quand
(14) heure (15) quand (16) ___ (17) est une femme (18) préparer
(19) Il. . . mari. (20) _____

OS - 4 B 2

p
Orage. Je me je me lève à six heures du matin et puis l'orage FFM
4

p 19 p p
commence. Je vais au au campagne et je vois des antilopes et F
9 4 1

19 p
aussi des canards. Je ne suis pas je ne suis pas un bon M
1 4

19
mais je fais j'ai sur mon sur mon tête. Je porte
9 9 9 9 4 7 9 1

p 11
un sur mon tête sur mon tête je porte. (61) F
9 9

2M - 2

4F - 8

OS - 0

T 10

W - 61

IC - 16

VOC - 68

P - 6

H - 16

OC - 4 B 2

p 12
Le tricheur. Le tricheur est un est un personne. Le
4 5

p 11
tricheur est un problème dans dans cette classe. Parce que FS
4 1

p
la classe est très grand, il n'y a il n'y a pas de pour le tricheur M
4 1

p
il il joue son son il joue son jour dans l'école et il F
4 4 4

p p
dénonce le professeur, il dénonce les autres élèves, et il ne M

p 53 p
fait il ne fait pas beaucoup. Ils sont pas bon ils sont pas bons
4 4

dans cette classe. Quand il est quand il est dans cette classe FSF
9 4

p 14
la classe ne va pas. (94)

2M - 2

4F - 8

2S - 6

T 16

W - 94

IC - 17

VOC - 101

P - 10

H - 13

VC - 4 B 2

p 7 p
Nous nous allons faire du camp. Quand nous quand nous quittez S
4 4

p 18 p
la maison, il y a beaucoup de choses dans l'auto. L'auto est FF

4 p 10
plein. Il y a le père, la mère, et deux enfants. Les deux

p p p 16
enfants crient et et fait fait le la bruit quand il conduit. S
4 4 3

p 12 p
Enfin il arrive au à il arrive au camp. Quand il arrive, MFS
3 2

p p 17
il fait le tente et et puis et puis fait le souper. Après MF
9 4 4

le souper nous sont après le souper nous sommes nous
2 4

20
sommes près au au lit. Nous nous allons nous se nous F
4 4 4 4

p 13
coucher nous se coucher. (100)
4

2M - 2

5F - 10

3S - 9

T 21

W - 100

IC - 21

VOC - 117

P - 13

H - 17

VS - 4 B 2

x p

La mère la mère de la famille se réveille à six heures FF

4

17 p p

du matin. Quand il quand il se lève, elle elle se lave FS

2 4 9

x 22 * * p x

son visage dans le lavabo avec les mains. Puis il brosse ses FFM

10

dents avec la brosse à dents. Après elle après elle FF

4

* p x 11

peigne son cheveux avec le peigne. Puis elle elle met FM

1 9 4

p 13 p

elle met ses habits et ses souliers. Elle met elle met

4 4

p 16 p

un tablier et prépare le petit déjeuner. Elle elle fait du café M

4

16

et du pain et des oeufs et des oeufs pour pour. (90)

4 4

3M - 3

8F - 16

1S - 3

T 22

W - 90

IC - 24

VOC - 105

P - 9

H - 13

WOE - 0

P&C - 0

Det - 4

Pro - 3

Pron - 12

Pron - (1) café (2) lavabo (3) ___ (4) prépare (5) quand (6) dents
(7) puis (8) ___ (9) famille (10) après (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) peigne (14) heure (15) met (16) ___ (17) ___ (18) lavabo
(19) ___ (20) ___

OS - 5 B 2

p 12 p
À cinq heures du matin il fait beau en été. Le soleil se lève FFF

p 11 p
et les les oiseaux chantent. Soudainement le soleil est M
4 9 9 9

p 16
derrière les la terre est il fait sombre. Il
9 2 2 9

p p 11 p
commence à pleuvoir et il fait du vent. Les feuilles tombent
9 1 9 9

5
des arbres. (45) F

1M - 1
4F - 8
OS - 0
T 9

W - 45
IC - 20
VOC - 55
P - 8
H - 12

OC - 5 B 2

p 9 p
Un garçon entre dans la salle de classe. Il est un il est FF
2

7 p p 13
tricheur. Le professeur le donne l'examen et il commence. Il
1 9 9 9

p
prit il prend un morceau de papier de sa poche et il le FF
2 9 1

p 22 p 13
regarde sous le pupitre. Et puis il écrit sur son examen, examen. FF
9 9 4

p p p 15
Ses camarades le voient mais ils ne disent rien ils ne disent rien.
4

Enfin le professeur le voit et il prend l'examen du garçon et MF
9 9

24
le garçon a zéro. (79)

1M - 1	W - 79
7F - 14	IC - 19
OS - 0	VOC - 103
T 15	P - 12
	H - 14

VC - 5 B 2

p 10 p p
Le premier jour que j'ai fait le camping. Il a plu, il a plu MS
5 5

p 10 p
et il a plu. Il y avait aussi beaucoup de de l'eau d'eau dans MFF
4 2

p p
ma tente que les canards peuvent nager et plonger dans dans la SF
9 4

28 p p 12
tente. J'ai il a fait du vent et la tente a tombé. Le
2 9 9

p p
feu est mais mon mon déjeuner a tombé dans le feu et j'ai F
9 2 1 4 9 9

21 p 7
beaucoup de faim. Pendant que je que je dors. (80)
1 4

2M - 2	W - 80
4F - 8	IC - 20
2S - 6	VOC - 88
T 16	P - 12
	H - 17

VS - 5 B 2

p 12
Ma mère se lève à cinq heures à six heures moins cinq. FFF
2

p p x 16
Elle va à la salle de bain et lave et elle se lave la visage. FF
9 9 2 9

* p x p
Elle brosse ses dents et elle retourne à la à la salle à› FFF
9 4

18 p p
›chambre à coucher. Elle met une robe et ses souliers et elle va
2

p 25
à la cuisine elle où elle fait le petit déjeuner. Nous mangeons FS
2

10 p
du pain grillé et des oeufs. Quand nous avons mangé le› FS
1

p p
›petit déjeuner, elle dit aurevoir à mon père qui va au bureau MFSF
5

p 35 p 6
et moi et ma soeur allons à l'école. Quand nous avons sorti. (101) FS
9 5

1M - 1	W - 101	WOE - 0
13F - 26	IC - 39	P&C - 0
4S - 12	VOC - 127	Det - 2
T 39	P - 12	Pro - 1
	H - 13	Pron - 15

Pron - (1) sorti (2) bureau (3) ___ (4) retourne (5) mangeons (6) dents
(7) cuisine (8) aurevoir (9) grillé (10) brosse (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) pain (14) heure (15) met (16) ___ (17) nous avons (18) déjeuner
(19) Quand . . . école. (20) ___

OS - 6 B 2

p p
On orage est passé. Ce n'est pas bon une bonne chose pour MF
1 5

17 p 8
les animaux. Les oiseaux se perchent dans les arbres. Il F
9 1 1

p 4 p p 10
fait du vent. Il pleuve un peu et le vent est très fort. FM
1 9 9 1

p 9 p 4
Il n'y a pas de personnes dans les rues. Tout sont ches eux. F
9 9 9

p 7
Le soleil ne ne brille pas. (56)
9 4

2M - 2
4F - 8
OS - 0
T 10

W - 56
IC - 18
VOC - 59
P - 9
H - 14

OC - 6 B 2

p p
Quand les élèves fait un triche en classe, ce n'est pas de bonne SFM
5 9

15 p p 14
chose. Il y a un air de suspicion quand ce quand c'est passé. FS
1 5 4 9

p 12
Des des élèves et personne ne dit quelque chose. (37) M
4 1 9 9 9

2M - 2
2F - 4
1S - 3
T 9

W - 37
IC - 25
VOC - 41
P - 5
H - 11

VC - 6 B 2

p 10 p
Il y a beaucoup de problème du camping. On on prend tout la FFFM
9 9 4 9

p 10 p p
famille et partir. S'il n'y a n'y a plus pas le vent siffle et des S
1 1 4 9

p
insectes sont très mal, des (mosquites) especiallement et les M
1

29 p
animaux plus grands peut-être. On doit cuire sans le feu FMMF
9 9 9

9
avec du bois. (52) F

4M - 4
6F - 12
1S - 3
T 19

W - 52
IC - 37
VOC - 58
P - 7
H - 12

VS - 6 B 2

5 p 9
Une mère de famille. Elle se lève vers sept heures du matin. FFF
9 9

p p
Première chose, elle se lave, elle se brosse les dents, et se FM
9 1

p 17 p 4 p
peint les chevaux. Puis elle s'habille. Elle doit faire le M
9

13
petit déjeuner pour sa famille. Elle fait du café, des oeufs MF
5 9 9 9

11 o p
et de la viande. Sa mère pour être prête de sortir pour son F
9 9 9

16
travail vers huit heures. Après. (64) F
5 9

3M - 3
7F - 14
OS - 0
T 17

W - 64
IC - 27
VOC - 75
P - 8
H - 14

WOE - 0
P&C - 1
Det - 0
Pro - 0
Pron - 14

Pron - (1) café (2) chevaux (3) ___ (4) première (5) dents (6) dents
(7) puis (8) doit (9) famille (10) faire (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) peint (14) heure (15) dents (16) ___ (17) pour être
(18) ___ (19) Première . . . chevaux. (20) ___

OS - 7 B 2

6
Un orage dans le désert. Quelquefois dans dans le désert si on FSMF
4 9

p p
veut si on voit une étoile qui on peut qui on où on peut prendre
2 9 2 9

32
une bois, on va et si. (33)
9 9

1M - 1
2F - 4
1S - 3
T 8

W - 33
IC - 24
VOC - 38
P - 2
H - 8

OC - 7 B 2

P P 16
En classe si un camarade triche il faut nous faire penser à lui(13) SFF
9 9 9 9

OM - 0

2F - 4

1S - 3

T 7

W - 13

IC - 54

VOC - 16

P - 2

H - 4

VC - 7 B 2

P
Le camping pose quelques problèmes. La plupart des temps, le MFF
9 9 9

P P
temps ne fait pas beau. Quelquefois il pleut beaucoup. MM
9

P P P
Autrefois il fait froid ou il fait du vent. Aussi il y a des MM
9

P
animaux qui n'est pas agréables. Les camarades posent ne peut S
9 9 2

P P
ne sont pas aussi agréables. Ils parlent beaucoup et vous M
2 9 1

P
ne pouvez pas dormir. (58)

6M - 6

2F - 4

1S - 3

T 13

W - 58

IC - 23

VOC - 77

P - 10

H - 11

VS - 7 B 2

P 13
La journée d'une mère de famille commence à sept heures. FFF

```
          p                   p       *   p    x
Elle se lève, elle elle se lave, elle brosse ses dents et elle
                   4

    p     15               p                                    14
s'habille.  Puis elle prépare le petit déjeuner pour sa famille.  MMF

 o                    p                   p           15
Après son mari est parti elle fait elle fait le ménage.  Après›   SF
    5                    9             4

            p              8
›diner elle fait des courses.  Vers six heures la famille la      F
     9         9            9                                4

           p                 p  15                  5
famille retourne et et ils dinent.  Après le diner.  (67)         F
               9   4                                 9
```

2[illegible] - 2

7F - 14

1S - 3

T 19

W - 67

IC - 29

VOC - 85

P - 11

H - 10

WOE - 0

P&C - 1

Det - 1

Pro - 1

Pron - 12

Pron - (1) diner (2) ___ (3) ___ (4) retourne (5) dents (6) dents
(7) puis (8) ___ (9) habille (10) mère (11) ___ (12) ___
(13) petit (14) heure (15) dents (16) ___ (17) ___ (18) déjeuner
(19) Elle . . . s'habille. (20) ___

OS - 8 B 2

```
    p        3        p                            p  8
J'aime le soir.  J'aime le temps quand le soleil tombe.  Tout     S
              9                  9               9      9

    p                p             p
devient noir et obscure La nuit est tranquille tranquille et
       9    9                   9              4             1

                                          19
pleine de bruits de les animaux des forêts.   (31)                FFF
       9                        9          9
```

OM - 0

3F - 9

1S - 3

T 12

W - 31

IC - 38

VOC - 37

P - 5

H - 12

OC - 8 B 2

```
          p                                  12
-Je suis venu d'un petit village à la campagne.  Mes parents      FMF
             9           5                                9

       p         8                         p              11
 y habitent encore.  À ces ce village il y a un petit école.  Là  MMFMM
 1                 1       4                        9      1    1

       p                 7
 je faisais beaucoup d'amis.  Maintenant à le à l'université ils  FF
                                           2                9

  p                         19       p  2
 sont encore très chers à moi.  J'ai fait.   (47)                 MM
      9      9               1           9
```

7M - 7

5F - 10

0S - 0

T 17

W - 47

IC - 32

VOC - 59

P - 6

H - 13

VC - 8 B 2

```
           P
 Il y il y a beaucoup de problèmes quand on va à quand            FS
     4                 9                       2

     P       17                    P                     P
 on va (camper).  Quelquefois il pleut;  quelquefois il neige;    MM
      5

                  p       16
 quelquefois il y a du vent.  Plus souvent on ne peut pas         MFM
                   9         1                          9

     P
 dormir à cause des (mosquitoes) des ours des ours et des         F
                               1           2
```

31 p
autres animaux du forêt de la de la forêt. Quelquefois il y a FM
2 4 1

p 13 p
aussi des problèmes quand on mange. Quelquefois le feu est très MSMM
9 1

p 13
chaud et on ne peut pas. (75)

8M - 8
4F - 8
2S - 6
T 22

W - 75
IC - 29
VOC - 90
P - 10
H - 14

VS - 8 B 2
o p 7 x p p
Au matin le réveil sonne. Ma maman lève se lève et fait F
1 1 1 2

11 p p x
sa toilette. Puis elle va à la cuisine et elle elle fait un MF
1 4

16 x p p 12
petit déjeuner. Puis la reste de la famille arrive pour manger. MFS
1

p p
Enfin les enfants sont allés à l'école et le père est MF
9 9

24
allé au à son à son bureau. (54) F
3 4 9

3M - 3
5F - 10
1S - 3
T 16

W - 54
IC - 29
VOC - 70
P - 9
H - 12

WOE - 0
P&C - 1
Det - 3
Pro - 0
Pron - 13

Pron - (1) déjeuner (2) au (3) ___ (4) arrive (5) manger (6) enfants

(7) puis (8) toilette (9) famille (10) père (11) ___ (12) ___

(13) père (14) ___ (15) petit (16) ___ (17) famille arrive

(18) ___ (19) Enfin . . . bureau. (20) ___

OS - 9 B 2

7
Un orage dans le désert. Près de cinq heures et demie du FFF
1

p 15 p
matin je vais au métro. Alors puis puis je vais à mon bureau FMMMF
9 9 3 4

p 18 p
et je fais tout mon travail le jour. Il y a beaucoup de gens MF
9 9

13
dans les rues et dans le métro. À la fin de la journée FFFF
9 9

p 12
j'arrive à la maison. (57) F
5 9

4M - 4

11F - 22

OS - 0

T 26

W - 57

IC - 46

VOC - 65

P - 5

H - 11

OC - 9 B 2

p
Dans la salle de classe il y a toujours un ou deux tricheurs FFM
9 9

p 25
qui présentent une problème au professeur. Les tricheurs ne S
1 9

p
les sortes de problèmes que les que les tricheurs présentent FS
2 4 1

p
que ils interrompent l'ordre de la leçon et ils ne ils ne fait F
9 9 1 4

p
ils ne faisent pas le devoir et toutes les autres élèves MM
2

p
pensent qu'ils qu'ils ne peuvent faire peuvent pas
4 9 2

p 59
faire le devoir aussi. (71) M

4M - 4

4F - 8

2S - 8

T 18

W - 71

IC - 27

VOC - 84

P - 7

H - 15

VC - 9 B 2

p p
Quand une famille va à la campagne, pour faire le camping, SFS
9 1 9 5

p p 25 p
il y a beaucoup de problèmes qui arrivent. Si le père met le la, FS
1 9 1 3

p
tente près d'une fleuve, peut-être beaucoup de l'eau ira dans, FFF
1 9 1 9

p 30
la tente s'il y a s'il pleut et sa famille ne. (50) S
2 9 1

0M - 0

5F - 10

4S - 12

T - 22

W - 50

IC - 44

VOC - 55

P - 7

H - 15

VS - 9 B 2

p 12
La journée d'une mère de famille est très complexe. Premièr- FFMM

p o p
ement elle se lève près de sept heures, et elle se lave, et F
9

* p x o * p x 25
elle brosse les dents, et elle brosse les cheveux. Puis la

p 5 o p
mère s'habille. La prochaine chose elle fait le petit MM

11 p 7 p 5
déjeuner. Et puis le travail commence. Elle fait la volaille. M
9 9 9

p p p
Elle lave les elle fait les repas et elle fait toute la M
2 1

17
volaille chaque jour. (69) M

7M - 7	W - 69	WOE - 0
3F - 6	IC - 17	P&C - 3
OS - 0	VOC - 82	Det - 2
T 13	P - 12	Pro - 2
	H - 6	Pron - 12

Pron - (1) journée (2) ___ (3) ___ (4) commence (5) commence (6) commence (7) puis (8) ___ (9) famille (10) repas (11) ___ (12) ___ (13) petit (14) heure (15) dents (16) ___ (17) ___ (18) premièrement (19) Premièrement . . . cheveux. (20) ___

OS - 10 B 2

7 5
Un orage dans le désert. Six heures du matin. Le soleil FF
9

p 4 p 3 p 6
brille. Il fait chaud. Il n'y a pas un souffle d'air. Il F
1 9

8
y a des animaux partout. Un canard sauvage sauvage MM
4

p 10 p
pousse un crie. Puis les nuages le soleil est couvert M
9 2

p 23
de nuage et le vent il commence d'être le vin le vent. F
1 9 9 2

p 7 p p
Il faut trouver un abris. Les animaux trouvent cherchent
9 9 3

9 p 6
les vallées. Il y a beaucoup de vent. (74)
9

3M - 3

4F - 8

OS - 0

T 11

W - 74

IC - 15

VOC - 88

P - 10

H - 14

OC - 10 B 2

6 p
Les tricheurs dans l'école. Les tricheurs posent un grand FM
5

8 p 7 p
problème. Que faire avec ces tricheurs? Ils posent un

p
problème et c'est à ses professeurs et aussi à ses camarades
2 5

21 p p
de classes. Peut-être il n'y a qu'un élève qui cherche l'attention FS
9 5 5 1

15 p 7 p
l'attention. Peut-être c'est un élève bête. Mais c'est une F
4 1 9

8 p 7
c'est un grand problème. Que faire avec ces tricheurs? M
3 9

p 7
Peut-être on peut les mettre dans. (73)
9 9

2M - 2
3F - 6
1S - 3
T 11

W - 73
IC - 15
VOC - 86
P - 10
H - 13

VC - 10 B 2

p p p
J'aime beaucoup faire le camping mais quand nous va camping M
9 9

p 22 p
quelque chose de mal arrive chaque fois. Peut-être il pleut MFFM

p 12 p
et ou peut-être il fait très froid. Ou il y a un grand MM
3

p 12 p
vent qui fait tomber notre tente. Ou il y a beaucoup de SF
9

p 11 p
mouches; ça m'ennuie beaucoup. Ou il y a beaucoup d'animaux MF
9 9 1 9 9

p 13 p
qui va dans notre tente. Nous aime beaucoup la nourriture SFM
9 9 9

12
comme les hot dogs. (72) F
9

7M - 7
6F - 12
2S - 6
T 25

W - 72
IC - 35
VOC - 82
P - 12

H - 13

VS - 10 B 2

x p p
À sept heures la le cloche sonne et elle se lève et elle se F
3

p * p x p p
lave et brosse ses dents, elle se peigne, elle s'enrobe, elle

p p
mit ses souliers, puis elle fait le café, le pain grillé et MM
9

43 p p
les oeufs. Elle dit aurevoir à son mari puis elle prit son M

17 p 5 p
son petit déjeuner. Elle lave la vaisselle. Elle donne le M
4 9

9 p
petit déjeuner à son chien. Elle fait les lits et elle M
9 1

p p o
lave elle joue avec le bébé puis dans l'après-midi elle M
2 5

p p 27
faire elle fait ses courses et. (89)
2 9

6M - 6

1F - 2

OS - 0

T 8

W - 89

IC - 9

VOC - 101

P - 17

H - 10

WOE - 0

P&C - 1

Det - 2

Pro - 1

Pron - 15

Pron - (1) soulier (2) joue (3) ___ (4) déjeuner (5) enrobe (6) enrobe (7) puis (8) aurevoir (9) grillé (10) brosse (11) vaisselle (12) ___ (13) peigne (14) heures (15) dents (16) ___ (17) ___ (18) déjeuner (19) À sept . . . oeufs. (20) ___

APPENDIX G

TWENTY PRESELECTED PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS

1. Diphthongization of /i/ or /e/ in a final unchecked syllable: si, fée. 1. ______
2. Diphthongization of /u/ or /o/ in a final unchecked syllable: boue, beau. 2. ______
3. Production of /œ̇/ before /j/ : feuille. 3. ______
4. Giving /ə/ quality to vowel in position of unstressed vowel in English: support. 4. ______
5. Intercalation of nasalized consonants: tomber, penser. 5. ______
6. /Ē/ instead of /ā/: en, cent. 6. ______
7. /w/ for /y/ : lui, juin. 7. ______
8. /oj/ for /wa/ : oie, fois. 8. ______
9. /l/ for /j/ : fille, travail. 9. ______
10. Non acceptable variety of French /r/. 10. ______
11. /z/ for /s/ : dessert, soixante, ils sont. 11. ______
12. /ž + j/ for /z + j/ : lésion, les yeux. 12. ______
13. Aspiration of initial /p, t, k/. 13. ______
14. Pronunciation of /h/ for h aspiré or muet. 14. ______
15. Sounding of silent final written consonant which is not normally sounded. 15. ______
16. Dropping /œ/ before h aspiré. 16. ______
17. Closed syllables or open juncture: Il est ouvert. 17. ______
18. Carry-over of English stress to words of three or more syllables: apartement. 18. ______
19. High points of succeeding phrases in the ascending part of the statement each higher than the previous one 19. ______
20. Forbidden liaisons after singular noun. 20. ______

NAME ______________________________ TOTAL ______